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ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

44, Parliament Street, London, S.W.
July 25th, 1893.

My Lord Duke,

I have the honour to submit to you the Report which I have been directed to draw up on the Labour Question in Belgium.

As the information in the possession of the Commission was incomplete, I was directed to proceed to Brussels at Easter 1892. The facts then obtained have been from time to time supplemented by correspondence with many friends in Belgium. To these, and especially to Monsieur Sainctelette, President of the Belgian Labour Commission, the Count de Lalaing, now Belgian Minister at Rio Janeiro, and Dr. Armand Julin, of the Belgian Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Public Works, I am deeply indebted.

I should also like to express my thanks to Mr. Martin Gosselin, Chargé d'Affaires of Her Majesty's Legation at Brussels, for much courtesy shewn to me as Secretary of this Commission, and to Mr. de Courcy-Perry, H.M. Consul at Antwerp, for information with regard to that city.

I am,
Your Grace's obedient servant,
GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

To His Grace The Duke of Devonshire, K.G.,
Chairman of the Royal Commission on Labour.

REPORT ON THE LABOUR QUESTION IN BELGIUM.

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REPORT ON THE LABOUR QUESTION IN BELGIUM.

SOURCES FROM WHICH THE INFORMATION INCORPORATED IN THIS REPORT IS DERIVED.

Labour Commission.

The most important works respecting the condition of labour in Belgium, as a whole, are the publications of the Labour Commission, instituted by a Royal decree of April 15th, 1886. The first volume contains the answers received to the schedules of questions issued by the Commission, respecting labour, the relations of labour and capital, and the material, moral, and intellectual condition of the employed.

The second volume embodies the oral enquiries instituted in the six districts into which the country was divided for the purpose; the third volume contains the reports of the various sub-committees, and the conclusions or recommendations of the Commission; and in the fourth are included the reports of the plenary sessions of the Commission, between April 1886 and June 1887, and various other reports, memoranda, and letters. The following subjects were dealt with by the Commission in its recommendations:—

Councils of conciliation.
Regulation of labour.
Workmen's dwellings (two sessions).
Re-building of districts in towns expropriated for improvement.
Payment of wages.
Savings banks.
Trade associations.
Drunkenness.
Technical schools.
Mutual aid societies.
Personal military service.
Councils of prud'hommes.
House-keeping schools for girls.
Insurance against labour accidents.
Friendly, provident, and pension funds.
Co-operative societies.

Recent laws, Bills, and decrees.

A considerable number of laws have since been passed, mainly as a result of these deliberations. Some of the most important are those of August 16th, 1887, regulating the payment of workmen's wages; August 16th, 1887, instituting the councils of industry and labour; May 5th, 1888, providing for proper factory inspection; July 31st, 1889, revising the law on the councils of prud'hommes; and December 13th, 1889, regulating the labour of women, young persons, and children in industrial establishments. Among the Bills which are at the present time before the Chamber of Representatives, the most important are those relating to State recognition of trade associations, engagement of workpeople and domestic servants, and employers' liability. A number of Royal decrees have also been issued, defining the application of the various laws.

Official publications.

Official statistics on production and the state of trade have as yet only been published for the mining, metal, and glass industries. Valuable information respecting the labour of women and children, in almost all industries, is contained in the report of the first session of the higher council of labour, established by a Royal decree of April 1892. Statistics of wages, hours, and workmen's budgets were compiled for the month of April 1891 by the councils of industry and labour. Information on other points has been obtained from private publications.

DIVISION 1.—TRADE DISPUTES BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

A.—General Relations between Employers and Employed.

Causes of present feeling.

The relations between employers and workmen vary greatly in the different industries throughout the country, and in individual establishments, but, as a rule, they leave much to be desired. In his Report on trade associations, M. Prins ascribes this unsettled feeling, in the first place, to the abolition of the old guilds, the members of which respected the rights of others, while themselves striving for the recognition of their own. As a second cause, he mentions the introduction of machinery, which minimises the distinction between good and bad workers. A third cause is the transformation of the system of production, and the change from small to large industries, in which the former close intercourse between masters and men is no longer possible.(1) This change has taken place in Belgium more gradually than in some other countries, as, for instance, in the United States, but almost the only trades which have escaped its influence in the present day are those concerned with shoemaking, carpentering, glass, and jewellery. The great increase in foreign competition during recent years also makes it difficult for the old friendly relations between capital and labour to continue, for employers are bound, in their own interest, to produce as much as possible at the lowest possible cost, and workmen are forced in self defence to prevent their wages from being reduced below a fixed minimum.(2)

1. Socialism.

As a consequence of this estrangement between capital and labour, socialism has of recent years attained considerable development in Belgium. Early in the latter half of the present century, socialist principles had been preached, mainly by De Potter, Bartels, Jottrand, and De Kats, in the hope of remedying the crying abuses that then existed in the country.(3)

(a.) The Internationale.

In 1865, the introduction of the society known as the "*Internationale*" into Belgium gave new life to socialist doctrines; branches were established at Liége and elsewhere, in 1866, and large numbers of workmen became members. At the congress held by this society at Lausanne in 1867, De Paepe stated that there was a very active section at Brussels, which had been joined by the societies at Ghent and Antwerp. The weavers at Ghent, whose society was the first in that town to join the *Internationale*, had until that time taken no part in the socialist movement, and still bore on their banner the motto "God and the Law" (*God en de Wet*). In 1868 the first congress of the *Internationale* in Belgium was held at Brussels. Previous to this date, the congress of Lausanne had passed a vote that railways should become the property of the State. But, in spite of the collectivist principles advocated by De Paepe, the congress of Lausanne did not express any desire for the suppression of individual property, and even showed much distrust of co-operative societies, as tending to establish a fourth estate, below which there would be a still more miserable fifth estate. At the Brussels Congress, De Paepe's principles were adopted by a large majority. From this time the objects of the *Internationale* were completely transformed, and henceforth its aim was to abolish the paid workmen class (*salariat*), and transfer the ownership of tools and land to the community (*collectivité*). This change, however, was to be effected by the natural process of evolution, not by revolutionary means. Communism, which even Proudhon's demonstration had shown to be impracticable, had few or no adherents in the *Internationale*, but the party called "mutuellists," headed by Tolain, opposed the doctrines of De Paepe. At the congress held at Basle in 1869, De Paepe again secured the votes of a strong majority, and the opposition of the mutuellists came to an end. The intervention of the State was desired by the socialists of the old school, as well as by the later academic socialists (*socialistes de la chaire*), whereas the internationalists avoided even mentioning the word "State," and spoke only of the "collectivity"; their ideal appears to have been a federation of independent co-operative societies. The Russian anarchist Bakounin made his first appearance at the congress of Basle. In his opinion, the sole object to be desired was "pandestruction," or the complete abolition of the present conditions of society, and its reorganisation on a communistic basis.

Collectivism and communism.

At the same congress, De Paepe presented an exhaustive report which shows the radical difference between collectivism and communism. In the former,

(1) Commission du Travail, III. p. 54.
(2) Morisseaux. "Conseils de l'Industrie et du Travail." pp. 52–76.
(3) Meyer. "Der Emancipationskampf des vierten Standes," I. p. 49.

the supreme ownership is vested in the State or "collectivity," but the direction of labour is in the hands of co-operative societies working under certain conditions. The communist principle is exemplified in the case of the Belgian railways, where the State is at once proprietor and director, while the Italian railways, owned by the State, and worked by private companies, form an example of collectivism. As regards the remuneration of labour, communists desire strict equality, whereas the object of collectivists is to assure to each individual complete enjoyment of the production of his own labour. Again, communism abolishes the right of succession, and is incompatible with the existence of family life as we now understand it, while collectivists allow the continuance of individual families, and of the right of succession, except in the case of property owned by the State. The right of succession was strongly advocated at the congress of Basle, by De Paepe and other representatives of collectivism, and the motion for its abolition was rejected by 68 votes against 32.

Extension and decline of the Internationale.

Between 1868 and 1870, the *Internationale* extended rapidly in Belgium. In 1868 it was joined by the Free Workers (*Francs ouvriers*) in the woollen industry at Verviers, several miners' societies in Hainault, and many other associations. A number of strikes occurred in the next year throughout Europe; one of the most important was at Seraing. As a consequence of the strikes, the *Internationale* received numerous adherents, who hoped to receive support from its funds. During 1870 its power continued to increase, but after that time internal dissensions, and especially the hostility between Marx and Bakounin, quickly brought about its disorganisation. The society received its death blow at the Congress of The Hague in 1872, which decreed the exclusion of Bakounin, and Guillaume, the leader of the "autonomists." The Belgian internationalists were opposed to the exclusion of Bakounin, although they did not countenance his doctrines, which were of an openly anarchist character. After the congress at The Hague, the general council of the *Internationale* was removed to New York, and in a short time it lost all influence in Belgium, as in the rest of Europe. The autonomists, retaining the name of the *Internationale*, held several congresses, but there was nothing international about them beyond the name. In 1877 a "Universal Congress of Socialists" was held at Ghent; after some discussion the anarchists declared that their views and those of the autonomists could not be reconciled, and the second *Internationale* was brought to an end like the first. When the power of the *Internationale* in Belgium was at its height it included eight federations, situated respectively at Brussels, Ghent, Antwerp, Liége, the districts of the Vesdre Valley, Borinage, the Centre of Hainault, and Charleroi. The organisation of the society was more complete in Belgium than elsewhere. The exact number of members has never been ascertained, but it has been variously stated as 100,000 and 200,000.(1)

After the fall of the *Internationale*, the Belgian socialists endeavoured to reconstitute themselves on a national basis. Various societies were formed, which occupied themselves with socialist propaganda, especially the co-operative society "*Vooruit*," established in 1880.(2) The *Vooruit* and the Federation of Workmen's Leagues and Democratic Societies were mainly instrumental in establishing the Labour Party (*Parti ouvrier*) in 1885, which is now the centre of the socialist movement in Belgium.(3)

(*b.*) The Labour Party.

The Labour Party, the programme and rules of which are given in full in the Appendix,(4) is engaged in vigorous propaganda of socialist principles. At the fifth annual congress held at Jolimont in 1889, the reporter stated that during the past year the general council had organised 284 meetings and conferences, as well as several demonstrations. He added that the Party "had succeeded in rallying around the banner of "socialism all the intelligence and activity included "in the Belgian proletariate."(5) Among the questions discussed at the congress of the Labour Party, were the establishment of a minimum wage, an eight hours' day, universal suffrage, international legislation on labour, the formation of a league or federation of friendly societies under the protection of the Labour Party, the federation of co-operative societies, and propaganda among workers in all occupations, including the army, where this work is carried on chiefly by the "*Jeune garde socialiste*." The abolition of conscription, and the institution of voluntary personal service in the army, is strongly desired by the Labour Party, in view of the distress frequently caused by the present system. The advocates of this reform argue that it is unfair to allow young men in the upper classes of society to pay for a substitute, since working men cannot afford to do so, and are obliged to serve in the army during those years when they could best acquire knowledge of any industry. It may be noted, however, that one witness in 1886 spoke in favour of the system of substitution, stating that it was advantageous to agriculture, "for many young men "have served as substitutes and afterwards set up "with the money which they thus obtained."(6)

(*c.*) Universal suffrage.

The movement in favour of universal suffrage has taken a peculiar form in Belgium. As early as 1883, demonstrations were held in favour of an enlargement of the franchise, and in 1887 the workmen in the Walloon districts of Liége, Charleroi, Borinage, and the Centre of Hainault came out on strike, demanding universal suffrage. Other strikes followed, resulting in the appointment of a commission to revise the existing qualification for voters. Before the revision in May 1893, suffrage in Belgium was narrowly restricted. To be entitled to vote for members of the Chamber of Representatives, and of the Senate, it was necessary to be a Belgian subject by birth or full (*grande*) naturalisation, over 21 years of age, and to pay direct taxes to the treasury, amounting to at least 42 francs 32 centimes. Electors for the provincial or communal councils must be Belgian subjects by birth or naturalisation, over 21 years of age, and pay taxes of not less than 20 francs and 10 francs respectively. The Labour Party resolved that, in the event of the rejection of the Bill for universal suffrage, a general strike should be declared throughout the country. The proposal of M. Janson was that universal suffrage should be established for men over 21 years of age. In consequence of the rejection of this proposal, a disastrous strike broke out in all parts of the country, (7) and it is stated that a revolution was only avoided by the adoption of M. Nyssen's scheme of plural voting. This scheme established universal suffrage at 25 years of age, allowing an additional vote to married men over 35 years of age, and to those possessing property of a certain value, as well as to those who can prove that they have received education up to a certain standard. No person, however, may have more than three votes. As there are in Belgium about 1,400,000 men over 25 years of age, the total number of votes on the new system is estimated at about 1,900,000. On learning that this scheme had been accepted, the Labour Party at once ordered work to be resumed, and declared that the propaganda for universal suffrage at 21 years of age must henceforth be conducted by peaceful means. In 1891, the Labour Party organised the first really international socialist congress that has been held in Belgium. Roughly speaking, Belgian socialists of the present day may be grouped into two classes: the majority follow the programme of the Labour Party, and desire to get possession of power by means of universal suffrage; the minority, represented by the newspaper "*Le Mirabeau*," adopt the principles of the anarchist Bakounin, and aim at the complete abolition of the existing state of society.(8)

2. Attitude of employers.

(*a.*) Towards individual workmen.

Many employers have established and support clubs and societies of various kinds, and endeavour in other ways to improve the condition of their men.

The Cockerill, Val-St.-Lambert, Vieille-Montagne, Mariemont, and Bascoup Companies are among the foremost in providing for the material and moral welfare of all persons in their employment. Several employers have instituted store-shops (*économats*) for supplying their workmen with good provisions and clothing at moderate prices, and some have built model workmen's dwellings. In giving evidence before the Belgian Commission, many witnesses complained that all communications with their employers had to be addressed first to the foremen, who sometimes altered the whole matter in reporting it to the employer. On the other hand, the relations between masters and men

(1) Laveleye. "Le Socialisme contemporain," pp. 168-223, 253-4. "Die neue Zeit," IX. Jahrgang, I. Band, No. 24, pp. 759-66.
(2) *See* p. 35.
(3) *See* p. 14.
(4) *See* p. 44.
(5) Compte-rendu du 5me Congrès annuel, p. 20.
(6) Commission du Travail. V. p. 19.
(7) *See* p. 18.
(8) Parti ouvrier belge. Compte rendu du 5me Congrès annuel, pp. 31, 53. Id. 6me Congrès annuel, pp. 37, 51, 70. Bourée. "Les Conditions du Travail," pp. 20-22. "Les Chevaliers du Travail," I. No. 18; II. No. 1. "La Réforme," April 15th, 19th, 20th, 1893.

in many establishments were stated to be very good—the employers were always ready to hear any complaints or suggestions that might be made by the men. A weaver at Dinant declared that his employer was "a "father to his workmen," and a quarryman stated that the Lessines quarry-owners were "capital fellows" (*braves gens*).(1)

(*b.*) Towards workmen's associations.

In some industries very favourable relations exist between employers and the labour associations. Thus, M. Vandervelde states that in one large establishment at Brussels, all workmen are required to furnish a certificate showing that they are members of the Metal-workers' Federation.(2) In the cabinet-making trade, in 1886, the relations were so friendly that a foreman in one establishment had allowed his son to become a member of the workmen's society, but in another case, though an employer stated that he allowed his men to join as many societies as they chose, he would only deal directly with the men themselves. On the other hand, instances of less favourable relations are not wanting. Many witnesses before the Belgian Labour Commission complained of the hostility shown by the employers towards their societies; for instance, a smelter at Brussels declared that, although he had been ten years in the works, he had been dismissed because he was a member of the Workmen's League (*Ligue ouvrière*), and wished to establish a provident society. A dyer and cleaner in the same town stated that he had been discharged for taking part in a workmen's congress. Several delegates from printers' societies deposed that many of their fellow workmen were obliged to conceal their connection with their society, on account of the hostility of their employers.(3)

3. Associations of employers and employed.

(1.) Employers' associations.

(*a.*) Early period. "Ambachten."

A few years after the publication, in Belgium, of the decree of 17 Brumaire, in the year IV.,(4) which abolished the old guilds, a considerable number of associations (*Ambachten* and *Offices*) reappeared. A few of these still survive, chiefly at Bruges. The Master Bakers' Association (*Communauté des boulangers*) is the most important survival of the "*Ambachten*." Since the establishment at Bruges of a socialist co-operative bakery, even this is in a very precarious condition, because the members of the association are obliged to conform to the tariff which fixes the price of bread at 30 centimes a loaf, while the co-operative bakery sells it at 26 centimes. In 1891 the association numbered 80 members, out of about 125 bakers at Bruges. Unlike the other surviving *Ambachten*, it still admits none but master bakers. In the last century it possessed seven or eight almshouses and a chapel, but it has now only three houses, called the "*Rente des Boulangers*,"(5) which serve as a refuge for superannuated members. The remaining *Ambachten* are now merely friendly societies.(6)

"Offices."

The few "*Offices*" which still survive are all connected with the transport industry, and have very similar customs and rules. None but master-workers are admitted to the *Offices*; journeymen and assistants are rigorously excluded. Strict equality is generally observed in the division of profits. The principal *Offices* are those of the beer, corn, sack, and other carriers at Bruges, Furnes, Lierre, and Malines, and the *Stukwerkers* at Ghent, who are employed in unloading vessels. All are now in a state of decadence.(7)

(*b.*) Later associations.

Very little information is to be obtained respecting employers' associations of the present day. There are a considerable number in the various industries, but the details of their working are often kept secret. As a rule, they appear to have been instituted after the men's unions, in order to protect employers from the excessive demands that might be made by strongly organised bodies of workmen.

A. Mines.

At Charleroi there is an association of employers representing all the coal-mines in the district. It deals with all commercial and other questions connected with the coal industry, except those that relate to labour and wages, which are decided by each member for his own mine. The association also helps to support the industrial school at Charleroi. Each mine has a right to a representative, and the members elect a president, vice-president, paid secretary, and managing committee. Another union was formed in 1891 by the directors of the coal mines in Hainault, with the object of indemnifying the companies in case of a strike.(8)

B. Transport.

The "*Nations*" at Antwerp must be classed among employers' rather than workmen's associations. There are about fifty *Nations* in Antwerp, some of recent date, but the majority very old, in several cases even older than the sixteenth century. Each numbers from twenty to thirty, or, in a few cases, sixty members (*chefs de nation*). Until the establishment of the dockers' unions, the *Nations* had the monopoly of all transport, loading, and unloading of vessels in the port of Antwerp. Membership is obtained by purchasing the share of a deceased or retiring member, the price of such share varying from two or three hundred to 40,000 francs. All members must be able to read and write. Formerly the work was done by the members themselves, but now they usually only superintend gangs of workmen whom they employ for a fixed wage. The large *Nations* possess a considerable number of horses, waggons, machines, and other property, and their capital has been roughly estimated at from 500,000 to 1,000,000 francs. Each *Nation* is governed by a dean, sub-dean, and committee of five, elected annually. At the end of each month the profits are divided equally amongst the members, who are bound to secrecy concerning the amount of profit realised, the decisions made at their meetings, and other matters connected with the *Nation*.(9)

C. Building glass, and textile trades.

The Master Builders' Associations at Ghent and Verviers, instituted after the strikes in 1867 and 1871, have both succeeded in arranging disputes amicably with workmen. The association in the brick trade was established about 1880. Each member has a list of the men employed at other establishments, and agrees not to employ those who have broken their engagements. This institution has, it is stated, an excellent moral effect on both masters and men, and is consequently beneficial to the industry.

The Master Glass-workers' Association (*Association des maîtres de verreries belges*) at Charleroi, established in 1834, has, according to the statement of its members, merely commercial objects. Its action is mainly confined to informing members of the state of the various markets, in order that they may be able to fix the selling price. In 1884 the Master Glass-workers' Committee (*Comité verrier*) was formed for trade purposes, and afterwards became a protective society. It now endeavours to regulate production, and in 1891 it was decided to form a union for the sale of all glass made in the country.

In 1871 the Master Flax-spinners' Association at Ghent was instituted to regulate the rate of wages for the same kind of work in the various establishments, taking for a standard the highest rates that were paid.(10)

(2.) Joint associations.

In the present day, joint associations of employers and men have been formed in a few industries only. In the clock trade at Brussels, a joint society was established in 1886, with the object of raising the price of labour, and improving the relations between masters and men. There were about 60 members in the society in July 1886. The tapestry workers (*brodeurs tapissiers*) in Brussels also have a joint society, in which each side can discuss its own interests.(11)

(3.) Workmen's associations.

(*a.*) Trade associations generally. α History of the associations.

According to M. Vandervelde, trade unions in Belgium are developed from the old trade benefit societies (*mutualités professionnelles*), which arose towards the end of the eighteenth century. These were joint associations of masters and men in the same trade, with the object of maintaining friendly relations, of assisting all members incapacitated by age or infirmity, and celebrating religious festivals. With the rise of the large industries, and the spread of socialism, these societies suffered many changes. The religious institutions were abolished, the employers resigned their membership, and both employers and men formed separate associations to protect their own interests. Thus, for example, the Hatmakers' Benevolent Union (*Union philanthropique des chapeliers*), which was originally a trade friendly society, dating from the end of the eighteenth century, was transformed in 1838 into a protective society (*société de maintien de prix* or *de résistance*). This is the only association which can

(1) Weiler. "Les Institutions ouvrières de Mariemont," p. 10. Commission du Travail, II. C. pp. 142. 248.
(2) "Les Associations professionnelles," I. p. 179.
(3) Commission du Travail, II. B. pp. 13, 36, 44, 49; D. p. 111; III. p. 69.
(4) November 8th, 1795.
(5) Since 1857 these have been nominally the property of the monasteries (*hospices*).
(6) *See* p. 37.
(7) Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," I. pp. 1-10; II. pp. 12-18.
(8) Commission du Travail, I. p. 419. Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," II. p. 71.
(9) Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," I. pp. 10 and 11; II. p. 17. Van den Boyaut. "Comité de Patronage des Habitations ouvrières." Report, pp. 255-60. Report on Docks and Quays at Antwerp, by H.M. Consul De Courcy-Perry.
(10) Commission du Travail, I. pp. 416-22; II. B. pp. 7. 47; E. p. 125. Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," I. pp. 121-9.
(11) Commission du Travail, II. B. pp. 1, 11.

be directly traced from the old "*mutualités.*" In 1865 a few small employers still retained their membership in it, whereas it had then for some time been resisting the large manufacturers. The Free Typographical Association (*Association libre des typographes*), established in 1842, adopted the rules of the Hatmakers' Union, and these rules became a model for those of all later societies. Next in order were the Jewellers' and Goldsmiths' Society (*Société des orfèvres-bijoutiers*) in 1852, and the Tailors' Brotherhood (*Association fraternelle des tailleurs*) in 1855. The factory workers were much later in forming organisations, the earliest societies being the spinners', weavers', and metal-workers' at Ghent, established in 1857(1).

β. Character of the associations.

So far as they have escaped the influence of the factories, these societies are characterised by complex institutions, providing, in addition to strike pay, support for members who are out of work or sick. The typographic and lithographic printers, glove and hat makers, and bronze workers also grant aid to superannuated members. Several societies have also labour registries, workshops for the unemployed, and technical schools. Candidates for membership must be good workmen, and able to earn the minimum wage established in the trade, and members are not allowed to work with non-unionists (*sarrazins*). The number of apprentices is usually restricted, and in some cases, as, for instance, in the dyers', glovemakers', and hatmakers' societies, only the sons of members are allowed to become apprentices. Politics are generally forbidden as a subject of discussion, and the societies have no political objects, although most of their members are individually affiliated to the Labour Party (*Parti ouvrier*) which has decidedly political objects, and adopts a somewhat hostile attitude towards religious institutions. It may be noted, however, that some of their members profess the Catholic religion, while others have adopted the views of the extreme anarchists. The spread of factories and the substitution of machine for hand work tend to bring about the abolition in these societies of all but the strike funds, and special societies are formed to provide assistance in other cases of necessity. Branch societies are formed in the provinces, socialist principles are introduced, and the unions generally become affiliated to the Labour Party as a body, and have recourse to political action. Midway between the trade unions in their original form and the societies affiliated to the Labour Party come those which are connected with the Belgian Knights of Labour (*Ordre des Chevaliers du travail belges*). These have funds for various purposes, and regulate apprenticeship, but in other respects they resemble the societies affiliated to the Labour Party, rather than the original trade unions. On the other hand, the societies affiliated to the Labour Party have usually only a strike fund, and, owing to the large preponderance of factory workers, they have no regulations restricting the number of apprentices. Candidates for membership need not have served any apprenticeship, and in some cases members of other trades are admitted; thus, the secretary of the Miners' Federation is a printer, and "the Miners' Union at "Horru, the best organised in the Borinage district, "admits agricultural labourers, and obliges the neighbouring tradesmen to contribute to it, under penalty "of being boycotted." These societies follow the programme of the Labour Party, aiming at universal suffrage, the separation of Church and State, and other political objects. As is noted by M. Vandervelde, "wherever the organisation of the Labour Party is "sufficiently advanced, the trade union is now merely "an organ, incapable not only of satisfying its own "needs, but also of independent existence and action. "The organism is the federation, an aggregate of "benefit, trade, co-operative, and political institutions, "and this corporate body tends to replace the old "guild. It may be said that the Federation of Ghent "alone adequately realises this type of organisation." This is due partly to the personality of the leading members, and partly to the preponderance of the textile industries at Ghent. "In Brussels, on the contrary, "where factory industries are less developed, and "trades (*corps de métier*) are very numerous, the fusion "of the various societies presents considerable difficulties."

The federated societies usually provide for their own government, and retain full control over their own funds, unlike the English amalgamated societies, in which all money is generally paid into one central fund.(2)

(1) "Les Associations professionnelles," II. pp. 18-34.
(2) Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," I. p. 182; II. pp. 28-50, 57-72.

γ. Membership.

Three important classes of workers are up to the present time almost entirely unorganised—women, domestic servants (*ouvriers rendant les services personnels*), and agricultural labourers. Women are admitted to membership in the General Association of Journeymen Tailors (*Association générale des ouvriers tailleurs*) at Brussels, and some of the societies in the textile trade at Ghent. Agricultural labourers have still absolutely no trade association at all; and domestic servants had none until May 1891, when a Coffee-house Waiters' Union was instituted in Brussels. The total number of members in the various trade associations has been estimated at about 70,000 men, or rather more than one tenth of the whole adult male working population of the country, without including domestic servants and agricultural labourers. Of this number, 50,000 were in May 1891 enrolled in the Miners Federation, and rather more than 24,000 were affiliated to the Knights of Labour.(3) The societies affiliated to the Labour Party, with the approximate number of members of each society, are given in the Appendix.(4)

δ. Effect of the associations.

Many of the associations have had considerable influence on the conditions under which their members work, as also on the general relations between capital and labour. Thus, for instance, the Printers' Free Association claims to have raised the rate of wages from 3 francs in 1841, to a minimum of 5 francs 50 centimes for men on the establishment. In 1892, on the proposal of the Association, the Provincial Council of Brabant resolved by a majority of 41 that a minimum wage should be included in all printing contracts to be executed in the province. The association has obtained an arrangement fixing the number of apprentices allowed to a specified number of journeymen, and in 1883 it was mainly instrumental in inducing the Chamber of Representatives to pass a law abolishing the necessity for workmen to furnish certificates from their late employer. By restricting the number of apprentices, the associations secure a limited number of good workmen, and a possibility of work for all duly qualified men. The associations at Mariemont and Bascoup, especially, have an excellent effect on the relations between the men and their employers. Contracts between the companies and representatives of the men are drawn up, according to which the men undertake to do the work for a fixed price, and to repair and keep the machines in order at their own expense. By this system the interests of capital and labour are rendered identical; the men work both well and quickly, wages have risen about 20 per cent. since the introduction of the system, the net cost has been reduced as much or even more, and the hours of labour have been materially shortened. In 1888 the associations at Mariemont and Bascoup had already obtained the complete abolition of women's labour in the mines.(5) Difficulties that occur in the execution of contracts are referred to the Chambers of Explanations (*Chambres d'explications*), which are established in each department, and are very beneficial in preventing friction, and producing a good feeling between employers and men.(6) The Metal Workers' Federation may also be mentioned as having a good effect on the relations between members and employers; very often the delegates of the federation prove that the employers are in the right in a disputed question. As most of the associations admit none but persons of good character, refuse to aid drunkards and other persons of immoral life, and punish those who bring discredit on their society by their conduct, they tend to raise the moral and intellectual standard of workers in the trade, to accustom them to discipline and respect for the laws, and to develop in them unselfishness and a spirit of order and economy.(7)

ε. State recognition requisite.

The need for State recognition (*personnification civile*) is felt by most workmen's associations. This recognition, says M. Vandervelde, is scarcely needed so long as the association is purely aggressive in character, but it becomes indispensable as soon as it desires to develop, and to create practical institutions. Many witnesses before the Commission urged the necessity of such recognition, and M. Prins in his Report put forward many arguments in favour of such a measure. State recognition would confer the right to appear in court (*ester en justice*), to hold, transfer

(3) Id., I. pp. 7-10, 157.
(4) *See* p. 46.
(5) *See* p. 23.
(6) *See* p. 20.
(7) Weiler. "L'Esprit des Institutions ouvrières de Mariemont," p. 15. Bollaert. "Les Institutions ouvrières de Mariemont et de Bascoup," p. 28. Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionelles," I. pp. 91, 179. Commission du Travail, III. pp. 66-70.

(*transiger*), sell, buy, or mortgage real property, and it would also secure the amount of the members' contributions. As the law stands at present, the workmen's associations can be deprived of their property without being able to take steps for redress. A most flagrant instance of such deprivation was afforded by the tailors' society called the Brotherhood (*Fraternelle*), whose funds, amounting to 600 francs, were seized by the local authorities in 1884. Since the association was not legally recognised, no means of recovery were possible, and it was dissolved. The Labour Commission recommended that State recognition should be granted to associations of either employers or workmen, or joint associations of employers and workmen engaged in the same trade, provided that the associations should consist of a minimum number of members, combined for trade objects. Foreigners might be admitted after two years' residence in the country, so long as their number did not exceed one-tenth of the Belgian members, but they were to be disqualified from sitting on the council of management. All recognised associations should take a name which would distinguish them from any that previously existed, and should send a copy of their rules to the Registry for publication in the official journal, and furnish annually a statement of their finances, and of any alterations that might be made in their rules. They should agree to respect the freedom of labour, and, in cases of dispute, try to arrange all questions by conciliation, and they should guarantee that their funds should not be used for any but trade purposes. During the session of 1888–9 a Bill embodying these demands was presented by the Government to the Chamber of Representatives, but it has not yet been passed.(1) In the opinion of M. Vandervelde, it should be supplemented by the addition of a clause imposing penalties on persons who interfere with the liberty of unionists, and by the repeal of article 310 of the Criminal Code referring to attacks on the freedom of labour.(2) So far from M. Vandervelde's desire having been fulfilled, on May 30th, 1892, a law was passed increasing the penalties to be imposed on persons convicted of attacks on the freedom of labour, including picketing and intimidation. Such action is now punished by imprisonment varying from one month to two years, and fines ranging from 50 to 100 francs, or by one of these penalties only.

(*b.*) Individual trade associations. A. Mines, quarries, and metals. *a.* Mines.

In the mining and metal industries, according to M. Vandervelde, "the proportion of unionists is very "considerable. It may be said that since 1886 there "are very few workers in quarries and coal mines who "have not at some time or other belonged to a pro- "tective society. But, at the present day, the quarry- "men's associations number scarcely 200 or 300 men. "On the other hand, the Miners' Federation has "extended very largely, and in May 1891 more than "50,000 men were enrolled in it." Previous to the establishment of this federation in 1889, many attempts had been made to organise the workers in coal mines. In 1869 many sections of the *Internationale* existed in the district, and in 1886 numerous workmen's leagues (*ligues ouvrières*) were formed; but from want of a central organisation they were soon dissolved. The National Federation includes the four local federations of Charleroi, the Centre of Hainault, Borinage, and Liége. The last two of these are very unstable, but the organisation of the Charleroi and Centre of Hainault federations is stated to be excellent. In the Charleroi district 23,000 colliers out of a total of 30,000 are affiliated to the Knights of Labour (*Ordre des Chevaliers du travail belges*). The Federation of the Centre consists of a number of trade (*syndicales*), friendly (*mutuellistes*), and political associations, grouped round the large co-operative society at Jolimont. The Federation is governed by an executive committee consisting of two delegates from each district, and holds a congress half-yearly. It has a central strike fund, supported by a monthly contribution of 5 centimes from each member, and "the rules of the Federation plainly show that its "sole object is to organise and regulate strikes in the "coal industry."

The International Miners' Federation was constituted in 1890 at the Congress of Jolimont, and the rules were definitely adopted at Paris in 1891.(3)

(1) The text of this Bill is given in full in the Appendix. *See* p. 55.
(2) "Les Associations professionnelles," I. p. 160; II. pp. 113-16. Commission du Travail, III. pp. 71-6, 247-50, 599; IV. pp. 47, 85-99.
(3) "Les Associations professionnelles," I. pp. 180-94.

β. Metal workers.

In the metal trade there are a large number of unions, of which the Metal-workers' Federation (*Fédération des métallurgistes*) is by far the most important. As early as 1862 there was an association at Brussels, which in 1870 contained over 2,000 members, and in Hainault the "Trades Union" (*Union des métiers*) was established in 1871; it soon numbered 1,500 members, but it was ruined by the strike in 1873.(4) Almost all the societies which now exist are of recent date. The federation was established in 1886, and in 1887 19 societies, numbering 2,118 members in all, were affiliated to it, but in 1888 for various reasons most of the affiliated societies withdrew. In 1889, however, it was reconstituted, and in 1891 it had affiliated to it 21 societies of workers in all branches of the trade. The object of the Federation is to render strikes fewer, and generally to carry out the programme of the Labour Party, to which it and all other societies in the trade are affiliated. Like most of the other societies it has only a strike fund, into which all the members' contributions are paid.

γ. Bronze-workers.

The Bronze-workers' Federation (*Fédération du bronze*) consists of five associations, a friendly society, three protective societies, and a choral society. After a strike in 1873, the first protective society, established in 1865, split into three independent societies of workers in the three branches of the trade, but in 1885 the federation was formed, in consequence of the crisis which prevailed at that time. Persons who wish to join the chasers' and moulders' societies must have worked four years at the trade, and pay an entrance fee of 5 francs. The objects of the federated societies are to obtain the abolition of overtime, and to maintain the rate of wages and the system of apprenticeship. No religious or political questions may be discussed at the meetings, but only matters connected with the interests of the trade. In recent years, however, the eight hours' day and electoral reform have been included in matters of trade interest. Aid is granted to superannuated members, and an attempt has been made to form a co-operative society, but no practical result has yet been attained.

δ. Goldsmiths and jewellers.

The Goldsmiths' and Jewellers' Free Association (*Association libre des orfèvres-bijoutiers*), established in 1852, numbered in 1890 only 125 members out of a total of 500. Persons who wish to join the association must have worked at the trade four years, and be earning at least 4 francs a day. The association is not connected with any political party, although the majority of its members are socialists, and the secretary is the leader of the Brussels anarchists. It has an out-of-work fund, a labour registry (*permanence*), and a co-operative tool shop. In 1886 a Syndical Chamber was appointed to discuss trade interests with the employers' delegates, and act as a committee of instruction (*comité d'etudes*). The association is managed by a committee of seven.(5)

B. Transport.

As railway workers are not organised in Belgium, the dockers' unions, which were established about 1889, are the only societies under the head of "Transport," in addition to the "*Nations*," which are classed with employers' associations.(6) The report of the general council of the Labour Party at the Congress of Louvain in 1890 stated that the dockers' union (*syndicat des dockers*) was then very powerful.(7)

C. Building, glass, printing, textile, and other trades. *A.* Builders.

There are a number of large and generally well organised federations in the third group, which includes the building and miscellaneous trades. The Stone-workers' Federation (*Fédération de la pierre*), established in 1891, is comparatively small, but the Woodworkers' Federation (*Fédération du bois*), founded in 1884, included eight societies in 1891, and had enrolled about 2,000 members. The most important of the federated societies is the Carpenters' and Joiners' Association (*Association des menuisiers et charpentiers*) at Brussels, which was established in 1866, and reconstituted in 1884. It provides strike and sick benefits, and has a labour registry (*permanence*) and a tool-shop. A work-shop for the unemployed (*atelier de chômage*) was instituted in 1886, but was given up two years later. In 1891 the association numbered about 400 members, out of a total of nearly 10,000 workers in Brussels.(8)

β. Cigar-makers.

In 1890 the Cigar-Makers' Federation (*Fédération des cigariers*) was formed, including the local associations at Brussels, Antwerp, Ghent, Liége, and

(4) *See* p. 16.
(5) "Les Associations professionnelles," I. pp. 168-79; 35-50.
(6) *See* p. 9.
(7) pp. 16 and 17.
(8) Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," I. pp. 155-55.

Turnhout. The Cigar-Makers' Union (*Union des cigariers*) at Brussels, established in 1868, which may be taken as a type, desires to maintain the standard rate of wages, to find work for the unemployed, and to secure the general welfare of its members. It provides strike, emigration, and out-of-work benefits, and forbids its members to work with non-unionists, or to help them to get employment. Out of a little over one hundred rules, about thirty are concerned with fines or exclusion, and one regulation states that "the freedom "of members consists of the right to work in any "factory where they obtain the wages fixed by the "association, and includes whatever is not forbidden "them by the laws of society (*lois sociales*)." In 1870 the Union numbered about 400 members, but in 1891 it had only 150, and the funds, which once amounted to nearly 15,000 francs, had then fallen to less than 8,000 francs. Workshops for the unemployed have been established at Brussels, Antwerp, and Ghent.(1)

γ. Clothing trades. Glove-makers.

The Amalgamated Glovemakers' Society (*Collectivité des gantiers*) at Brussels is a federation of the four protective societies of skin-dressers (*mégissiers*), softeners (*palissonneurs en blanc*), dyers (*teinturiers en peaux*), and glove-makers (*gantiers*). The sole object of the first two societies is to support strikes, but assistance when out of work is granted by the dyers and glove-makers, and the latter have also accident, sick, and superannuation funds. Only about half of the workers in the trade belong to the skin-dressers' and softeners' societies, but almost all the dyers and glove-makers are unionists, and have forced the employers in all the shops but one to agree to the exclusion of non-society men (*sarrazins*). In the glove-makers' society the entrance fee is fixed at 15 francs. No person but the son of a member may become an apprentice in the dyeing and glove-making trades, and no member may take less than the established minimum wage. The softeners and dyers are affiliated to the Labour Party, but the Glove-makers' Union (*Union des gantiers*) refuses all connection with it, and is also the only trade society at Brussels that has opposed the establishment of the Labour Exchange (*Bourse du travail*).(2)

Hat-makers.

In the straw hat trade at Brussels there is no important society, but all the felt and silk hat makers, almost 150 in number, are members of the Hat-makers' Benevolent Union (*Union philanthropique des chapeliers*), first established in 1838. It was originally a joint association of employers and men, but since about 1865 it has consisted of journeymen only. Many attempts have been made to induce the factory workers to join the Union, but without success; but they have recently formed a society of their own, which is affiliated to the Labour Party. Those who wish to join the Benevolent Union must have served a regular apprenticeship, and must pay an entrance fee of 100 francs. In 1885 the funds amounted to 30,000 francs, but had fallen in 1890 to 22,000 francs. The rules forbid members to work with non-unionists, and allow none but sons or brothers of members to become apprentices; all engagements must be made through the medium of the Union. Aid from the funds is granted to members out of work, travelling, sick, or infirm; it is also given in cases of accident or death. No political question may be discussed at the meetings. The Union is governed by a committee of sixteen members representing the various branches of the trade.(3)

Tailors.

The National Tailors' Federation (*Fédération nationale des tailleurs*), established in 1890, comprises five associations at Brussels, Ghent, Antwerp, and Malines, of which the Journeymen Tailors' Union (*Union syndicale des ouvriers tailleurs*) at Brussels is a local federation having two other societies affiliated to it. Before 1830 there were tailors' societies at Brussels, the most important of which, the Brotherhood (*La Fraternelle*), was reconstructed in 1855 as a protective society (*société de maintien de prix*). After the disastrous strike in 1867(4) many dissensions arose among the members, who were thenceforth divided into the "poor" and the "aristocrats." In 1880 the "aristocrats" left the Brotherhood, and established the Tailors' Union (*Union syndicale*). In 1884 the funds of the Brotherhood were taken from it, and it was dissolved; and in 1886 its members joined the Tailors' Union. The objects of the federation are to suppress home work and piece-work, and to substitute the system of working a limited number of hours in a shop (*atelier*). As yet, the factory workers (*ouvriers des confections*) have not joined the federation, although invited to do so.(5)

(1) "Les Associations professionnelles," pp. 131–46,
(2) Id., I. pp. 50–8.
(3) Id., I. pp. 24–35,
(4) *See* p. 17.

δ. Confectioners.

The Confectioners' Society (*Société des confiseurs*), established in 1885, numbered 70 members in 1891, out of a total of about 150 workers, including apprentices. Previous to its establishment, there was only a friendly society, "*La Ruche mutuelle*," and the formation of the trade society was due to the rising influence of the Labour Party (*Parti ouvrier*), to which it became affiliated in 1886. Several members resigned after this date, and although the numbers were rapidly increased in 1887 in consequence of the strike, the membership was so far reduced in 1890 that the society was only saved by establishing a co-operative productive society, all the profits of which are paid into the central fund.(6) The society grants strike, out-of-work, and travelling benefits, and it has a labour registry (*bureau de placement*) controlled by six members in the various branches of the trade. No regulations respecting non-unionists are contained in the rules, but almost all apprentices are sons or nephews of confectioners, and women and non-unionists are only employed in one establishment. The society is governed by a committee of five, elected annually.(7)

ε. Glass-workers.

About 1850 the first society was formed in the glass trade, and in 1868 there were three sections of the *Internationale* composed of glassworkers only, but these had disappeared before 1870. In consequence of a circular published in 1883 by the president of the Master Glassworkers' Committee (*Comité verrier*), the blowers established the Glassworkers' Union (*Union verrière*). After the strike in 1884, all the other branches of the trade joined the Union, which then numbered 2,700 members, and in the same year, after many difficulties and reverses, it joined the English, French, and American societies in forming the first international trade federation. The federated societies are financially independent, but must assist one another in case of a strike. In 1891 the Glassworkers' Union contained 1,120 members. Its objects are those of the Order of the Knights of Labour, to which it is affiliated, and until 1886 it was the centre of all organisation in the district of Charleroi, but since the strike in that year its power has greatly diminished. It assists members on strike or out of work, or when emigrating, and has founded a society which provides its members with sick and funeral benefits. All members must have served an apprenticeship varying from three to seven years, and pay an entrance fee of 5 francs. The government is in the hands of a president, paid secretary, and eight councilmen, four of whom are chosen by the president, and four by the general meeting.(8)

ζ. Printers.

The Typographic Federation (*Fédération typographique*), formed in 1868, includes the large societies of Brussels, Antwerp, Ghent, and Liége, besides a number of smaller associations. The principal objects of the federation are to find work for the unemployed, to raise the rate of wages, and further the general welfare of members of the trade. Each federated society manages its own government, and is otherwise independent, but none may become affiliated to any society which has not for its sole object the advancement of professional interests.(9) The federated societies are bound to furnish annual statistics bearing on the state of the trade, to oppose the employment of women as compositors, to regulate apprenticeship, and to join in all movements connected with wages and other questions. A monthly contribution of 10 centimes a member is paid into the central fund, which must never fall below 2,000 francs. The federation is governed by a central committee of five, including a president, vice-president, and secretary, and a congress of delegates from the federated associations is held annually. In 1880 the first International Typographic Congress was held at Brussels under the management of the Belgian Federation.

Brussels Association.

By far the most important of the federated societies is the Free Association of Typographic Compositors and Printers (*Association libre des compositeurs et imprimeurs typographes*) at Brussels. The Free Association of Compositors, to which only compositors earning three francs a day were admitted, was established

(5) "Les Associations professionnelles," I. pp. 155–65.
(6) *See* p. 34.
(7) "Les Associations professionnelles," pp. 58–65.
(8) Id., I. pp. 111–28.
(9) In consequence of this rule, three societies in the book trade which are affiliated to the Labour Party cannot be admitted. "La Fédération typographique belge," February 1st, 1893.

in 1842 by eleven compositors dismissed from the office of the "*Globe*" for resisting a reduction of wages. In spite of determined opposition on the part of many employers, the imprisonment of the leading members, and many other difficulties, the number of members rapidly increased. In 1863 the Association appointed a committee of ten to fix a tariff of prices, and in the next year the master printers formed the Belgian Typographic Union (*Cercle typographique belge*), which also drew up a tariff. After many negotiations, and a strike in the offices which would not accept the tariff of the association, the matter was settled by arbitration, and the tariff was adopted. In 1859 the association was affiliated to the United Workmen's General Association (*Association générale des ouvriers réunis*), but left it after a few years because of the introduction of political principles. For the same reason it refused in 1867 to become affiliated to the *Internationale*. At the end of 1868, some employers who were hostile to the association established the Brotherhood (*Fraternelle*), which was joined by many members of the association; and the latter was further weakened by several strikes which took place at the same time. Prior to 1869 the association consisted exclusively of compositors, but in that year the Free Association and the printers' association, founded in 1847, but with funds amounting in 1869 to 2,000 francs, were fused into one, under the title of the Free Association of Typographic Compositors and Printers. In 1874 an advance of wages of 50 centimes a day for men on the establishment was demanded, and granted almost immediately by 28 offices out of 32, but the attempt to secure an advance for the piece-workers two years later was followed by a disastrous strike.[1] Another society, "*La Solidarité*," was established in 1886, and in consequence of the strike in 1890 this was fused with the association, which in 1891 numbered over 1,000 members.[2] In the same year the total receipts amounted to 52,935 francs, and the total expenses to 55,888 francs. All printers and compositors who wish to join the association must be 20 years of age, and have worked at the trade for five years, and they must pass a theoretical and practical examination before they are admitted. The entrance fee is 5 francs, in addition to a sum varying from 2 to 5 francs according to age, which is paid to the superannuation fund (*caisse de retraite*), and the contribution is 2 francs 50 centimes a month. No member on the establishment may work for less than 55 centimes an hour, and journalists must receive at least 5 francs 50 centimes a day. Non-unionists are not tolerated in any office. The association provides benefits for its members as follows:—

Institutions.

Dispute benefit:
5 francs a day for three months.

Out-of-work benefit:

Not more than	200 francs	the	1st year.
,,	150	,,	2nd ,,
,,	150	,,	3rd ,,
,,	100	,,	4th ,,

Superannuation benefit:
Not more than 1 franc a day, according to the receipts of the previous year.

Travelling benefit:
From 5 to 25 francs, according to distance travelled.

The association possesses a library, established in 1862, which in 1891 contained 1,440 works, a newspaper, "*La Fédération typographique*," and a school for apprentices. This school was opened in 1889, and was in 1891 attended by 67 pupils. About 40 employers send their apprentices to the school, and pay their expenses. The total annual expenditure amounts to about 5,000 francs. No attempt has as yet been made by the association to establish a co-operative printing society, although the question has been discussed on several occasions. The objects of the association are non-political, and it refuses to become affiliated to the Labour Party (*Parti ouvrier*), but in 1882 a society for electoral reform, "*En Avant*," was established, and was joined by 417 members of the association. This has been for several years affiliated to the Labour Party. Since 1890 the association has taken part in the demonstration for the eight hours' day, but not in that for universal suffrage. The association is governed by a council of 25, including a president, two vice-presidents (a compositor and a printer), a secretary, and a treasurer, who are elected annually, and a permanent delegate, who receives 175 francs a month. After the strike in 1890, an additional section (*section des adhérents*) was formed of compositors and printers who are not eligible for membership in the Free Association. In 1892 the section numbered over 300 members. All who wish to join it must have worked two years at the trade, and be between 16 and 25 years of age; they must pay a fee of 1 franc on entrance, and a monthly contribution of 50 centimes. Aid from the funds is granted to members who are "victimised" or out of work. The section is governed by a committee of 13, eight of whom are members of the Free Association.[3]

(1) *See* p. 17.
(2) *See* p. 17.

n. Textile Cotton and flax.

The Ghent Federation (*Fédération gantoise*), which was formed in 1860 by the union of the three societies of cotton-spinners, weavers, and metal-workers, includes the friendly society "*Bond-Moyson*," ten protective societies (*sociétés de résistance*), of which those in the flax and cotton industries are the most important, the co-operative societies "*Vooruit*" and "*De Werkman*" and various other associations (*cercles d'études et de propagande*). After the disastrous strike at the Grasse Fabriek in 1861, the metal-workers left the federation, the spinners' society was dissolved, and only the weavers remained.[4] Soon after, a socialist minority in the weavers' society formed another union, and both became affiliated to the *Internationale* in 1867. The cotton spinners' society was reconstituted in 1876, and in 1891 it numbered 630 members out of a total of 1,200 workers, but the weavers' society, which in 1886 had enrolled 1,800 members, had in 1891 only 650 out of about 3,500 workers. The weavers' society grants aid to members on strike, or travelling in search of work, and in cases of sickness or death; women are admitted on the same terms as men, and may read the books in the library of the association without any payment. The principal objects of these societies are to obtain an advancement of the rate of wages, and reduction of hours, and to assist all other associations during a strike.[5]

Wool.

The Federation of the Vesdre Valley (*Fédération de la vallée de la Vesdre*) consists of the local federations of Verviers, Ensival, and Dison, most of the members of which are engaged in the woollen industry. The earliest protective societies in the valley were contemporary with the *Internationale*. In 1867 the Society of Free Workmen (*Francs Ouvriers*) was established, and this founded the Federation of Protective Societies (*Fédération des caisses de résistance*), chiefly composed of workers in the woollen industry, affiliated to the Internationale. There was also a local federation at Verviers, but the crisis in 1870 swept away the whole of this organisation. In 1872 sixteen spinners' societies formed a federation, and the weavers established the Federated Weavers' Protective Society (*Résistance des tisserands fédérés*), which in 1873 became affiliated to the *Internationale* at Verviers, but after the strike in that year the sections of the *Internationale* in the Vesdre valley were completely disorganised. About 1884 the Verviers Federation was reconstituted, but it was again disorganised in 1887, and the present societies were only founded about 1889. Although a large number of workmen in the district are socialists, not more than 1,000 are affiliated to the Labour Party, and the associations are propagandist (*cercles de propagande*) rather than protective societies (*sociétés de résistance*).[6]

(c.) Other labour organisations.
a. Knights of Labour

The Order of the Knights of Labour (*Ordre des Chevaliers du travail belges*) was introduced into Belgium by delegates from the American glassworkers' union, which had aided the Belgian glassworkers in the strike in 1884.[7] The example of the Glassworkers' Union (*Union verrière*) in becoming affiliated to the Order was rapidly followed by the glovemakers', miners', metal-workers', and many other societies, and in 1887 the first State Assembly (*Assemblée d'Etat belge*) was held at Brussels. In 1886 the Knights of Labour, together with the Labour Party, organised a demonstration at Charleroi of more than 4,000 men, demanding universal suffrage, and pardon for the victims of the events of the previous March. After several strikes[8] in the various sections of the Order, a meeting was held at Charleroi-Nord in 1890, at which it was decided that the Belgian Order should henceforth be quite distinct from the American. Since the decline of the Glassworkers' Union, the head-quarters of the Order are in the mining districts of Charleroi, Borinage, and the Centre of Hainault, where in spite of much hostility on the part of employers, strikes, and other difficulties, the number

(3) Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles." I. pp. 66–103. Hubert. "Historique de l'Association libre des Compositeurs et Imprimeurs typographes de Bruxelles," *passim*.
(4) *See* p. 18.
(5) "Les Associations professionnelles," I. pp. 194–218.
(6) Id., I. pp. 219–30.
(7) *See* p. 17.
(8) *See* p. 17.

of members has so far increased that 23,000 colliers out of 30,000 were enrolled in the Order in 1891. According to the rules of the Order, only working men can be admitted as members, consequently the repeated requests of a considerable number of tradesmen to be admitted, could not be granted, but the Order has helped to establish tradesmen's unions (*unions de commerçants*) in several localities. These associations agreed to support the political and other claims of the working class, and, in return, the Order undertook not to establish new co-operative societies, but to support those which already existed. The principal objects of the Knights of Labour are to secure the establishment of a Department of Labour Statistics (*Bureau de statistiques du travail*), the repeal of all laws which unduly favour capitalists, the recognition of trade unions and other labour organisations, the establishment of courts of arbitration for the settlement of disputes, an eight hours' day, and other measures for the moral, intellectual, and social welfare of the working classes.(1)

β. Labour Party. Origin. The history of the Labour Party (*Parti ouvrier*) is inseparably connected with the development of socialism in Belgium (*see* above). Before its establishment, there existed in Brussels a group of associations called the Federation of Workmen's Leagues and Democratic Societies, which included political, rationalist, democratic, republican, and socialist elements. There were also the socialist associations of the *Internationale*, and of the Chamber of Labour. At certain times all these elements united to organise demonstrations in favour of universal suffrage, and on behalf of the unemployed. The Federation instituted workmen's leagues (*ligues ouvrières*) in all the suburbs of Brussels, and it was decided that an attempt should be made to group together all classes of workers who had hitherto remained outside the pale of labour associations. At Easter 1885 a congress was held at Brussels to discuss the feasibility of the proposed institution. Some discussion arose as to the name which the society should bear: the Flemish and Brabançon socialists wished to adopt the name "Socialist Party" (*Parti socialiste*), but the Brussels Federation preferred the title "Labour Party" (*Parti ouvrier*), which was finally decided upon.

Composition and work. The Labour Party is composed of a number of independent federations, of which those having their headquarters at Ghent, Brussels, and Jolimont are the most important. These federations are almost all identical in their organisation. They consist of a number of mutual aid, trade, political, educational, and other societies, connected by one or more large co-operative societies. The various groups also form special federations, of which the chief are those of metal-workers, wood-workers, and painters, the federations of the co-operative and mutual aid societies, and the Socialist Student's Federation. Within one year from the date of its establishment, the Labour Party supported the strike which occurred in the spring of 1886, demanding universal suffrage and a reform of the constitution, and in August 1886 an important demonstration in favour of universal suffrage was held at Brussels. The Labour Party has supported a number of other important strikes and movements for social reform, organising meetings and conferences, and employing various other means of propaganda.(2) In 1891 the first really international socialist congress was organised in Brussels by the Labour Party. This congress was attended by some of the most eminent representatives of foreign science and socialism. M. Volders states that the influence of the Party has already been immense, and that it was mainly instrumental in obtaining the appointment of the commission to revise the constitution. The programme setting forth the objects of the Party, and the rules by which it is governed, are given in full detail in the Appendix, which also contains a list of the principal trade associations, specifying those which are affiliated to the Labour Party.(3)

(4.) Catholic associations. A number of Catholic associations have existed in Belgium for many years. They had at first a purely religious character, but most of them have in recent years added economic institutions to their original organisations. One of the most important is the Holy Family (*Saint Famille*) established at Liége in 1844. Others that may be mentioned are the societies of St. John the Baptist, instituted at Ghent in 1858, the society St. Vincent de Paul, established at Brussels in 1845, of St. Francis Xavier in 1854, and of St. Francis Regis, which is chiefly occupied in facilitating the marriage of the poor. Since 1886 the Catholics have organised religious guilds (*corporations chrétiennes*) to counteract the socialist principles disseminated by the Labour Party and other associations. The Guild of Industries and Trades of Louvain (*Gilde der ambachten en neringen van Loven*) is composed of persons engaged in various occupations, and includes a certain number of religious guilds. It is a joint association of employers and employed, and consists of employers, journeymen, tradesmen, other workers not included in the above categories, honorary members, and patrons (*membres protecteurs*). The entrance fee varies from 1 to 5 francs, and the subscription from 5 centimes to 3 francs a month, according to the position of the member. The guild is managed by a council of twelve, eleven of whom are selected by the various categories of members. A provost (*prévôt*) is chosen by the members of the council from among the priests of Louvain, and the whole council elects a dean, arbitrator, secretary, and treasurer. When the members of the guild include ten employers in the same industry, they may form a special guild, the rules (*keure*) of which must be approved by the council. The provost and dean take part in the government of each of these guilds. In 1891 guilds of this kind had been established among wood-workers, bakers, painters, clerks, and malters. The guild has instituted sick and funeral funds, a savings bank, and a society for the purchase of workmen's houses. The objects of the guild are to afford mutual assistance to members, to re-establish the system of working by hand, to develop industry in general, and to maintain good relations between employers and workmen. Mention may be made of the guild "*Eerlijk en Werkzaam*" at Bruges, which has recently been established on the model of that at Louvain, and of the Fishermen's Guild at Ostend, "*T'zal wel gaan*" instituted in 1887. In the same year the "*Maison des Ouvriers*" was founded at Brussels. In consists of ordinary members and associates; the latter are employers and other persons interested in the work of the society. In 1891 it numbered 1,141 members. The guild has established a mutual aid society, a lending fund and savings bank, and a labour registry. In 1890 it instituted a co-operative bakery in opposition to the "*Maison du Peuple*."

Character of the guilds. All these guilds consist only of persons engaged in small industries. Their rules are modelled on those of the old *Ambachten*, but the resemblance is merely superficial, and they have more in common with the labour associations of the present day than with the old guilds whose name they have adopted. Employers and workmen form two distinct classes, paying different contributions, and having special representation in the council of management. No restrictions exist as to the number or occupation of persons who may be admitted. The guilds are principally distinguished from other associations by their religious objects, and by the admission of both employers and employed. The chief object of the catholic guilds is to induce a reaction against the propaganda of the Labour Party, the "*Vooruit*," and other socialist unions. As M. Vandervelde says, "every time that the socialist workmen "build a "*Maison du Peuple*," form a syndicate, or "establish a co-operative society, the managers (of the "religious guilds) found in opposition a "*Maison des* "*Ouvriers*," a guild, or stores." (4) Up to the present time their efforts have met with only partial success, but their position shows signs of improvement. M. "Vandervelde believes that "in a few years the "greater number of workmen in Belgium will be affili- "ated to an organisation of some kind, either socialist or "religious, and that in all districts where small industries "(*l'industrie de métier*), religious traditions, and more or "less patriarchial relations between employers and "workmen exist side by side, they (the religious societies) "will recruit their members from among these thousands "of workers, now scattered as the dust, and entirely "unaffected by socialist propaganda."(5)

B.—Causes of Strikes.

1. Wages—(*a.*) for advance. From the fact that no official or other statistics of strikes in Belgium have hitherto been published, it has been impossible to obtain adequate information on the subject. The majority appear to have been due to questions of wages—for an advance or against a reduction. Thus, in 1879, a strike of miners took place in Borinage in consequence of an advance spontaneously

(1) "Les Associations professionnelles," I. p. 185. "Les Chevaliers du Travail," Nos 1-5; *cf.* Vol. I., pp. 8, 9.
(2) *See* pp. 8, 18.
(3) Volders. "Le Parti ouvrier belge." "La Revue socialiste," Dec. 1892, pp. 676-82. Vandervelde. "Histoire du Parti ouvrier belge," Société libérale, 2me série, Bulletin No. 7.
(4) "Les Associations professionnelles," II. p. 55.
(5) Id., I. pp. 231-7; II. 51-6. Meyer. "Der Emancipationskampf des vierten Standes," II. p. 280. Commission du Travail, II. B. pp. 57, 107, 121; B. pp. 30, 73, 92, 119, 143.

offered by the employer, but which the miners thought insufficient. Other strikes of miners occurred in 1888 and 1889. The Borinage miners, it is stated, took part in the political strikes of 1891 and 1893, in the hope of obtaining an advanced rate of wages, rather than from any political motives. The strikes of bronze-workers in 1873, of quarrymen in West Flanders in 1886, carpenters and joiners at Brussels in 1872, marble-workers in 1871, cabinet-makers in 1881, tailors in 1867, sugar refiners in 1876, printers in 1869 and 1877, and cotton weavers in 1870, were principally for an advance of wages. Since the establishment of the Bronze-workers' Federation in 1885, it has organised a number of strikes, almost all of which have been successful.

(*b.*) against reduction.

Some miners in Borinage struck in 1885 against a reduction of one franc, and were successful in inducing the employers to accept a reduction of 75 centimes instead. Other strikes that may be mentioned are those of the men in the Cockerill ironworks at Seraing in 1891, the lace makers at Brussels, and printers at Liége in 1881, the glass-workers in 1884, and the weavers at Turnhout in 1872, and at Roulers in 1893. In August, 1893, disputes occurred in a hat-making establishment at Cureghem, with respect to a reduction of 40 per cent. in the piece-work rate. The reduction was not maintained, and work was resumed after five days.

(*c.*) Minimum wage.

A few strikes have occurred for the establishment of a minimum wage. This was the cause of the printers' strikes at Liége in 1868, and in 1864, 1877, and 1890 at Brussels. One of the demands of the gun-makers in the Vesdre Valley in 1886 was for a minimum wage. In July 1893 some colliers at Wasmes struck against deductions from wages for the funds of a provident society, and there was a lock-out of ninety-one slate quarrymen at Alle owing to a dispute with regard to a new price list.(1)

2. Hours. (*a.*) Increase or reduction.

The miners' strike at Amercoeur in 1886 was to prevent an increase in the number of hours in the mine. Between 1871 and 1872 strikes occurred among cigar-makers, flax and cotton spinners, weavers, engine-makers, and house painters, principally with the object of obtaining a reduction of the daily hours of labour to 10. The quarrymen's and engine-makers' strikes in 1886 and 1870 were partly to obtain a reduction of hours, as were also the miners' strikes in 1886 and 1890.

(*b.*) Eight hours' day.

The eight hours movement has gained considerable ground in Belgium during the last few years. At the Fifth annual congress of the Labour Party it was proposed that the latter should undertake active propaganda in favour of an eight hours' day, and in April 1890 the Sixth congress decided that a demonstration should be held on May 1st of the same year. A proposal for establishing an eight hours' day from bank to bank was brought forward at the First International Miners' Congress held at Jolimont in the same year. After much discussion the French, German, and Belgian delegates unanimously passed a resolution in favour of obtaining the eight hours by Act of Parliament; at the Fourth Congress in Brussels in 1893 the resolution in favour of a legal eight hours' day underground was carried by 994,000 against 100,000. At the Third International Miners' Congress in London, 1892, the Belgian, French, German, and Austrian delegates desired to extend the eight hours' day to surface workers, and at the Fourth Congress at Brussels in 1893 the motion was carried by a large majority, the Miners' Federation of Great Britain remaining neutral. The proposal at the First Congress that, unless the resolution in favour of an eight hours' day became law before May 1st, 1891, a general strike should be declared, only met with partial support: at the Fourth Congress it was carried by a large majority, though opposed by the delegates from Durham, Northumberland, and Wales.(2) Though the strikes in 1891 and 1893 were mainly for political objects, the miners also demanded an eight hours' day.

3. Other conditions. (*a.*) Mode of working.

Since 1886 the Metal-workers' Federation has supported a certain number of successful strikes to obtain the abolition of the system of piece-work called "*abattoirs*" by the workmen. The only strike ever supported by the Lithographic Printers' Association occurred in July 1890, with the object of restricting the number of apprentices, but it resulted in failure. In the cigar industry the excessive employment of apprentices and the competition of women and children are frequent sources of dispute. In 1885 the cotton spinners at Ghent struck against the introduction of a new system of working. A strike of engine-fitters at Ensival-lez-Verviers from a similar cause is mentioned in the report of the Labour Commission. The introduction of machinery is mentioned as a cause of dispute between employers and workmen in the cigar industry. In 1873 a strike took place at two large establishments in the metal industry in the Centre of Hainault, to prevent a reduction of the staff, owing to the crisis in the trade at that time.

(*b.*) Obnoxious officials.

Many complaints were made before the Commission of the conduct of foremen and overmen (*contremaîtres* and *porions*). In 1872 a strike of blacksmiths occurred at La Croyère, in order to obtain the dismissal of a foreman; the men were successful after the struggle had lasted seven months. One of the most grievous complaints in connection with some of these officials was that they frequently kept shops and stores, at which they compelled the workmen to deal. Three forms of this truck system were at that time in vogue. In some cases the shop was kept by the employer himself, or by his foremen or overmen, very frequently also by some relatives or friends of the employer or foreman. The result was, however, practically the same in all cases. It often happened that a workman received little or none of his wages in money, but was paid in goods which he might not require, and which were not of the best quality. It was stated that at one colliery in Borinage the son-in-law of the manager was a brewer and wholesale gin merchant, two other relatives were grocers and drapers, and the mother of the sub-manager also kept a shop. The witness declared that similar practices prevailed in other establishments. Those miners who dealt at the "*bons endroits*," as these shops were called, were allowed privileges from which their fellow-workmen were excluded.(3) One of the causes of the strike of quarrymen in West Flanders in 1886 was the obligation to buy at certain shops. About the same time the gun-makers in the Vesdre Valley went out on strike; they demanded a minimum wage and the complete abolition of the shops kept by employers. Since the publication of the law of December 5th, 1887, regulating the payment of workmen's wages, this abuse has been greatly checked, although it has not yet been entirely abolished.(4)

(*c.*) Difficulties connected with unionism.

A few instances are mentioned of strikes which have been caused by the dismissal of members of trade associations. In 1872 a society of workmen engaged in the manufacture of lighting apparatus was established to demand an advance of wages. The employers met, and agreed not to employ any members of this society: the men struck, and were out for 100 days. A strike of confectioners took place in 1887, in consequence of the dismissal of the vice-president of the association. The printers at Ghent struck against the employment of a man who had worked against the association, and for two years the establishment was closed to members of the association. In 1887 the glove-makers at Brussels organised a successful strike to obtain the dismissal of non-unionists. Some of the men employed at the Six-bonniers colliery left work for two days in 1887 in consequence of a strike at the Marihaye and Cockerill mines at Seraing. The management of the colliery was reorganised as a result of the strike.

(*d.*) Political strikes.

No strikes are recorded from political causes previous to 1886, but since that date strikes of miners, more or less important, have occurred almost every year. In May 1887 35,000 miners in the districts of the Centre, Borinage, and Charleroi went out on strike for purely political objects. Other general and local strikes took place in 1888, 1889, and 1890, and in May 1891 a general strike occurred which embraced the four mining districts. The recent strike of May 1893, in which workmen from a number of different industries were concerned, was one of the most important strikes that have ever taken place in Belgium.

Comparison of strikes in the various industries.

The statistics necessary for a comparison of the number of strikes that have occurred in the various industries are wanting, but it will be seen that important strikes are most frequent among miners. Thus between 1869 and 1890 the following strikes occurred: Borinage, 47 strikes, 10 of which were general, or extended over a large part of the district; Charleroi, 68 strikes, eight of which were general, or extended over a large part of the district; Centre, 28 strikes, five of which were general, or extended to a large part of the district; Liége, 27 strikes, only one or two of which were widely extended. The very frequent occurrence of strikes in this industry is in great

(1) "Labour Gazette," August 1893, p. 93, Sept. p. 118.
(2) Parti ouvrier belge. Compte Rendu du 5me Congrès annuel, p. 53. Id. 6me Congrès annuel, pp. 32-6. Report of the 1st International Miners' Congress, pp. 15, 21. Id., "Labour Gazette," June 1893, p. 36.
(3) Commission du Travail, II., E. p. 17.
(4) *See* p. 51.

part due to the low wages generally earned by miners. A number of important strikes have taken place in the printing trade, many of which have been successful. The most noteworthy result attained by printers' strikes is the advance of the average rate of wages from 3 to 5.50 francs. In the cigar industry small strikes occur very frequently, but are generally local and of short duration.(1) Among jewellers, goldsmiths, and agricultural labourers' strikes are unknown.(2)

C.—Development, Organisation, and Conduct of Strikes.

1. Important individual strikes.

The following are some of the most important strikes which have occurred of recent years, arranged according to the various industries.

A. Mines, quarries, and metals. α. Coal mines.

In November 1886, an important strike occurred among the miners at Amercoeur, owing to an order from the management for an amount of work which would be impossible, unless the men remained seventeen or eighteen hours in the mine. The Miners' Union, which conducted the strike, made several unsuccessful attempts to obtain a settlement by arbitration or conciliation. For two months all went well, assistance was received from all parts of Belgium, and even from America, and the continuance of the strike was unanimously voted at all meetings. Subsequently, however, the number of men imported from Flanders and other provinces to work in the mines increased daily, and in February 1887, after the strike had lasted three months, the men resumed work. About 140 remained unemployed for some time, but the greater number gradually returned to their former posts, with the exception of the leading members of the Miners' Union, most of whom were victimised.(3)

In April 1888 the councils of conciliation and arbitration at Mariemont and Bascoup received a demand for an advance in wages; an agreement was made that when the state of the market improved, the advance should be granted. A few months later a further advance of 10 per cent. was demanded, half of which was immediately conceded, and all difficulty appeared to be at an end. It was, however, found necessary to vary the advance according to the different classes of men, and thus a misunderstanding arose, which, according to the statement of M. Weiler, there was some reason to believe was fomented by the leaders of the anarchist and socialist parties. Numerous meetings were held, in which anarchist speakers persuaded the miners to ask for an advance of 20 and even 40 per cent., and declared that there were 300,000 Belgians in France who only awaited a signal to march to their assistance. The councils endeavoured to arrange a settlement, and after a few days only 350 men out of 6,000 were absent from work, "in spite of violent "agitation on the part of the anarchists, who saw their "plans defeated for the second time."(4)

Another strike occurred in December 1889 in the district of Charleroi, to obtain a nine hours' day below ground, and an advance in wages of 15 per cent. Within a few days the strike had become general throughout the district, and the number of men out had increased from 15,000 to 27,000. The strike was conducted by the president of the Miners' Union, and after many negotiations a compromise favourable to the workmen was effected in January 1890. Two managers, however, stated the next day that they rejected the compromise, and the strike at these two mines continued for another week, when the miners employed there resumed work under the old conditions.

During 1890 a large number of miners were dismissed in the district of Charleroi, in defiance of the terms of the compromise, and blacklisting was apparently resorted to, since the men who were dismissed were unable to get work. A State Assembly of the Knights of Labour was held, and a letter was addressed to the directors, asking that the men should be allowed to cease work one day in each week, and that those miners who had been dismissed should be taken on again. No reply was made to this request, and, as further reductions of wages followed, a strike was inevitable. On May 1st, 1891, a demonstration of more than 25,000 men was held at Charleroi, and the next day, in accordance with a unanimous resolution of the delegates to the Miners' Federation, a general strike was declared in the four mining districts. The men demanded universal suffrage and a eight hours' day. Several attempts were made to arrive at a settlement by means of conciliation or arbitration, but without result; the struggle continued for 72 days, when the men were forced to resume work under worse conditions than before. For several months nearly 840 men remained unemployed, and in many cases attempts were made by the employers to weaken the Order of the Knights of Labour, by forcing the men to resign their membership, under penalty of dismissal. Considerable assistance was sent by the English associations, and divided amongst the victims of the strike in the four mining districts.

On August 15th, 1893, the Miners' Federation issued a manifesto, calling attention to the state of affairs in the English coal-fields, and pointing out that it was incumbent on Belgian miners and other workmen to prevent the exportation of coal to England. A further manifesto on August 24th advised them to demand an advance in wages of 10 per cent. The Borinage Union endeavoured to organise a general strike in sympathy with the English miners, but the majority of the men desired to profit by the improved situation due to the increased production caused by the exportation of coal to England. On September 22nd the directors of the mines in the Borinage district agreed to grant an advance very shortly, but two days later the Miners' Union decided that a general strike should be declared on September 25th.(5)

β. Quarries.

In January 1889 the joint-stock company of the porphyry quarries at Quenast dismissed seventeen grinders (*repasseurs*). The company stated that it was necessary to reduce the production, but the men considered the action aggressive, and about 300 left work, throwing a large number of other workmen out of employment. The public authorities were obliged to interpose, to prevent attacks being made on the freedom of labour, and in a skirmish which took place between the men on strike and some gendarmes, one workman was killed. In February a Royal decree was published, instituting a council of industry and labour(6) at Quenast, in the hope that a settlement might be made by means of conciliation, but before the council was regularly constituted an arrangement was concluded between the managers and the men on strike. In May, however, the struggle was renewed, and the question was submitted to the council of industry and labour, which decided in favour of the workmen. In July the strike was ended by a fresh agreement between the workmen and the company. Several societies, including the metal-workers at Tubize and the printers at Liége, assisted the men on strike. They were also supported by some of the university students at Brussels, and by the Labour Party (*Parti ouvrier*), which sent more than 60,000 kilogrammes of bread, and other assistance.(7)

γ. Metals.

Owing to the crisis in the metal industry in 1873, some employers in Hainault dismissed several of their workmen. In order to protest against such dismissals, the men employed in the two largest establishments came out on strike, and were supported by the "Trades Union" (*Union des métiers*). A large number of other societies sent aid, but the only result of the three weeks' strike was the ruin of the association. The total cost exceeded 20,000 francs.

Engine-makers.

In 1870 a strike of engine-makers (*mécaniciens*) took place for a reduction of the hours of labour, the abolition of fines, the payment of night work and overtime as time and a half, and the suppression of benefit funds in shops. The strike was at first local, but quickly became general, and was conducted by the Engine-makers' General Association. Other societies, including the *Internationale*, lent considerable pecuniary support, and all workmen who required aid received 15 francs a week as strike pay. After three weeks the strike ended in a complete victory for the men. Instead of working overtime, the employers took on additional hands, which was what the men desired. There was very little loss to either side, and production did not suffer, as the employers took advantage of the cessation of work to have necessary repairs executed. No establishment was blocked. A few workmen were victimised in Brussels, but they left the country for a short time, and afterwards returned.(8)

(1) *See* pp. 10, 17.
(2) Commission du Travail, I. pp. 390-403; II., A. pp. 49, 91; B. pp. 37, 45; b. pp. 9, 20, 31, 49; D. pp. 50, 96, 164; E. p. 18; and *passim*. Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," I. pp. 42, 91, 138, 180-94. F. O. Miscellaneous Series, No. 214, pp. 7-10.
(3) "Les Chevaliers du Travail," I. Nos. 1-2.
(4) Weiler. "La Grève de Mariemont," pp. 6-11.
(5) "Les Chevaliers du Travail," Nos. 3-6. Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," I. pp. 186-7. "Labour Gazette," Sept., 1893, p. 118. "Standard," Sept. 23 and 25.
(6) *See* p. 21.
(7) Parti ouvrier belge. Compte-rendu du 5me Congrès annuel, 1889, p. 20. Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles, I. pp. ix., 102, 175. "De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage en France et à l'Etranger," p. 456.
(8) Vandervelde, I. pp. 170, 173. Commission du Travail, I. p. 402.

Iron.

Early in 1891 the men employed in the Cockerill iron-works at Seraing struck against a reduction in wages of 5 per cent. The question was referred to the council of industry and labour,(1) and the reduction was accepted, on condition that the men who had taken part in the strike should not in any way suffer for their action. On the other hand, the employers guaranteed that the reduction should only last until trade improved.(2)

B. Transport and agriculture.

No information has been obtained respecting strikes in the transport and agricultural industries.

C. Building, glass, printing, textile, and other trades.

α. Carpenters and joiners.

In 1872 the carpenters and joiners in one of the largest establishments in Brussels requested the committee of the association to demand in their name an advance in wages of 10 centimes an hour. The employers refused to treat with the association, and the whole of the men came out. Perceiving that the movement would extend, seven other employers immediately declared a lock-out. The strike lasted a month, and was settled by an agreement that 5 centimes advance should be granted at once, and 5 centimes more within six months.(3)

β. Marble workers.

In 1871, in consequence of the improved state of the trade, the employers in the marble works at Brussels decided to grant an advance in wages of 10 per cent. The next day the men held a meeting, and determined to ask for an advance of 25 per cent. This was refused, and a strike was declared. It was organised chiefly by Belgians who had worked in Paris and become affiliated to the *Internationale*, which lent them support. After 22 weeks it ended in a victory for the men, but, in consequence of this advance, the importation into Brussels of marble from abroad and from the provinces was much increased, to avoid paying at so high a rate for work done at home.(4)

γ. Cigar-makers.

No important strike of cigar makers has ever occurred, although small local strikes are very frequent. The principal points of difference with the employers are the introduction of machinery, an increase in the number of apprentices, the competition of women and children, and the reduction of wages. In April 1893, a strike broke out in the Tinchant tobacco factory at Antwerp. It was, however, brought to an end after one day by the employers agreeing that the workmen's syndicate should "conduct the search for tobacco or "cigars in cases where workmen or workwomen were "suspected of smuggling them out of the factory."(5)

δ. Clothing trades. Glove-makers.

After the glove-makers' strike in 1884 all the employers, with one exception, agreed to employ henceforward none but men who belonged to the Glove-makers' Union. In 1887 several employers disregarded this agreement, and engaged a number of men at a lower price than that fixed by the tariff of the association. The other workers struck, and demanded the dismissal of the non-unionists. This was conceded, but one of the men thus dismissed lodged a complaint against the leaders of the association, on the ground of interference with freedom of labour. They were acquitted by the magistrates, but found guilty by the Higher Court at Brussels in 1888.

Tailors.

In 1867 an important strike of tailors broke out simultaneously at Paris and Brussels. Its object was to force the employers to accept a tariff raising the rate of wages, which had been stationary for 20 years, and to make this advanced rate applicable to the whole of the year. The strike was supported by the Brotherhood (*Fraternelle*), and lasted for a month; about 40 employers accepted the tariff, whilst others obstinately rejected it. Their firmness was afterwards discovered to be due to the fact that a number of men professedly on strike, and receiving strike pay, were working at night for high wages.(6)

ε. Glass-workers.

The most important strikes in the glass industry took place in 1884 and 1886. In January 1884 the Master Glass-workers' Committee determined to have 37 furnaces extinguished, and tried to reduce the wages of the men employed in the other furnaces. The Glass-workers' Union declared that the crisis was much exaggerated by the employers, and decided that the men thrown out of work by the extinction of the furnaces should be taken on to work with those who still retained employment, and should receive half the wages of the latter (*travail à deux pour un*). The majority of the employers refused to allow this mode of working, and in March a strike was declared. Most of the men on strike had entered into long engagements with their employers, who seized their wages and the deposits they had made, and brought an action against them to recover damages. In addition to the amount of the confiscated wages and deposits, the expenditure of the Glass-workers' Union reached a total of 14,422 francs 92 centimes. Large sums of money were sent from abroad for the support of the men on strike, and the American union sent its president and a member of its committee to organise an international union. In this way the Order of the Knights of Labour was introduced into Belgium, since the American Glass-workers' Union was affiliated to that body.(7) The American delegates informed the Union that there were vacancies in the United States for about 700 workmen, and that a free passage would be provided for those who emigrated there; others returned to their old employers, and thus the strike was brought to an end. After this strike the number of members in the Union largely increased, but in 1885 there was a fresh crisis, which resulted in further reductions of wages. In 1886 many disturbances broke out respecting the rate of wages and the introduction of a new kind of furnaces, especially into the works of M. Baudoux at Charleroi, who had taken a number of colliers' sons as apprentices. On March 25th thousands of miners attacked and completely sacked these and other glass works. The glass-workers took scarcely any part in the riot, but, in spite of their abstention, the secretary of the Union and several other members were tried and declared guilty of having instigated the pillage.(8)

ζ. Printers.

A large number of strikes have occurred at different periods in the printing trade. One very important strike broke out in January 1869 in ten offices at Brussels, in consequence of the employers' refusal to grant the men's demand for an advance of wages, to which thirty-eight offices had acceded. The Free Association supported the men on strike, and several foreign associations, as well as some sections of the *Internationale*, sent considerable sums to assist them. By the end of January the strike was practically at an end, although it lasted for some time longer in a few offices, including that of the "*Moniteur*." The strike cost more than 20,000 francs, and had only a partial success, as some employers persisted in their refusal to acknowledge the tariff. In consequence of this strike, one of the most important offices in Brussels was closed against members of the association.

In January 1877, after an unsuccessful attempt to obtain an advance of 5 centimes a day for piece-workers, the Free Association published an appeal to non-unionists, with the result that more than 200 at once joined the association, and demanded the rate of wages which it had fixed as the standard. Where this was refused, the men came out; a strike committee was appointed, and in a week the majority of the offices had accepted the new tariff. A few resisted firmly, and in a short time about 200 men were out, each of whom, with the exception of the apprentices, received 4 francs a day from the association. The societies of London and Paris and the president of the Free Association contributed generously to the support of the strike, but after two months, although a few offices still refused to come to terms, the association was forced to declare the strike at an end. The total cost of the strike amounted to 60,000 francs.

Another important strike occurred in 1890. At this time apprentices were employed in a number of offices, in the place of experienced workmen, at a sum equal to not more than half the wage fixed by the tariff of the association. On November 16th about fifty of these apprentices (*demi-ouvriers*) struck in the office of M. Mertens, and on the 20th the Free Association and a society called "*La Solidarité*" united in demanding the acceptance of the association's tariff in all offices where it was not recognised. A few employers accepted the tariff, but the greater number obstinately resisted; two days later the strike had become general, and nearly 400 men were out. A number of foreign and provincial associations contributed largely to the support of the association, which was further strengthened by its fusion with "*La Solidarité*." After six weeks the strike ended in a complete victory for the association, which gained about thirty offices, in addition to the fifty in which the tariff was already accepted. During this period more than 15,000 francs had been expended,

(1) *See* p. 21.
(2) "De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage en France et à l'Etranger," p. 459.
(3) Vandervelde, I., p. 153.
(4) Commission du travail, II. B., p. 20.
(5) Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," I., p. 139. "Labour Gazette," I., No. 1, p. 21.
(6) Vandervelde, I. pp. 57, 160.
(7) *See* p. 13.
(8) Commission du Travail, II. E., pp. 110, 127. "Les Associations professionnelles," I., p. 122. "Les Chevaliers du Travail," I. No. 1.

and 182 men still continued to receive support from the funds. Between November 1890 and the end of 1891, the total outlay caused by this strike amounted to over 50,000 francs, and the receipts during the same period to over 30,000 francs.(1)

η. Textile trades. Cotton.

Since the great strike in the factory of Parmentier Van-Hogaerden & Co. (*Graš Fabriek*) at Brussels in 1861, the most important strike in recent years in the cotton industry is that which broke out in the same establishment in 1885. It was caused by the dismissal of four spinners for refusing to obey the managers, who had decided to do away with one helper for each pair of mules (*supprimer un aide par couple de métiers à filer*). This mode of working did not affect the rate of wages, but required closer attention on the part of the men. The weavers came out in sympathy with the spinners, and both were supported by the *Vooruit*. The strike lasted five weeks, and resulted in a compromise, which the workmen considered as a victory. It was arranged that the four men who had been dismissed should not be taken back, but that the helpers at the other mules should continue to be employed for three years. Ninety-two new members joined the spinners' society after the strike.

Woollen.

In August 1873 a strike occurred amongst workmen engaged in the woollen mills of M. Lejeune-Vincent at Verviers, because the director had instituted a regulation that the men must come to work at a fixed hour, although they worked by the piece. The men retaliated by coming to work at eight o'clock instead of six, and declared that unless the regulation was abolished all the members of the *Internationale* would withdraw. In a few days 126 men were out, and the weavers' society, all the Belgian, and several foreign sections of the *Internationale* promised their support. The strike lingered on until November, but from the first there were defections among the men. Twenty-nine resumed work almost immediately after they had received the first week's pay, and by the 13th of September 88 men had returned. The failure of this strike completely disorganised the *Internationale* in the Vesdre Valley. No other important strike has since occurred, with the exception of a strike at La Lainière in 1882, against a reduction of wages of 20 per cent. The strike was conducted by the society "*En Avant*;" it lasted fourteen weeks, and resulted in a compromise.(2)

In June 1893 a strike occurred in the district of Verviers, which affected about 1,600 weavers and 250 spinners. The pattern weavers, who work by contract for the manufacturers, reduced the wages of the operatives in their employment. The latter struck, and were soon followed by the factory workers. A list was drawn up by the employers, and at last accepted by the operatives, subject to certain conditions, which were agreed to by all the pattern weavers, and all the manufacturers but seven. At the end of June, 630 operatives were still out. The burgomaster at Dison tried to effect a settlement by conciliatory means, and after several interviews between employers and employed, the majority of the Dison operatives resumed work on July 11th. In some cases an advanced rate of wages was secured. In others, all the men on strike were not readmitted to the factories, and some removed to France on July 25th, when the strike came to an end.(3)

General strike, 1893.

The general strike ordered by the Labour Party (*Parti ouvrier*) in April 1893, was mainly due to the rejection of M. Janson's Bill for universal suffrage in the Chamber of Representatives on April 11th. In the Borinage district, however, the strike was declared on grounds of economics as much as on those of politics, since the miners' society there had previously determined to declare a strike for an advance in wages of 10 per cent. for all colliers without distinction, an eight hours' day for all employed below ground, a cessation of work on Mondays to prevent over-production, and the abolition of "*redoublage*," a system of working overtime. The general excitement in the district was at such a height on the 10th of April that a collier "roused indescribable enthusiasm by "urging his fellow-workers to go the next day to "Brussels, and prevent the Chamber from adjourning "until they had voted for universal suffrage." On the rejection of the Bill by a majority of 89, the Labour Party at once declared a general strike, and issued a manifesto appealing to the nation. The next day 17,000 miners went out on strike in the Borinage district, and large numbers of painters, lithographic printers, weavers, builders, and others followed their example. The total number is not mentioned in the Belgian papers, but according to the statement of M. Volders,(4) 200,000 men were already out on April 11th. Serious disturbances attended with considerable loss of life soon followed, and the arrest of M. Volders, the leader of the Labour Party, and two others, was followed by fresh outrages. Windows were broken, and other damage done to houses, shops, and public buildings; the loss thus occasioned amounted on one day to 100,000 francs in Brussels alone. The action of the burgomaster, M. Buls, in prohibiting open air meetings and processions on April 14th, only provoked fresh exasperation, which was further increased by the order to close the "*Maison du Peuple*," the head quarters of the Labour Party. In spite of every effort on the part of the leaders of the Labour Party, serious encounters with the civic guards, police, and gendarmes took place in Brussels, Quaregnon, Mons, Antwerp, Borgerhout, Jolimont, and many other localities, in which numbers of men, women, and even children were shot down, and many mortally wounded. An attack was made on M. Buls and other authorities, demonstrations were held in several localities, large sums were contributed towards the expenses of the strike, and the agitation grew to such a height that a revolution appeared imminent. On April 18th, however, the Chamber by a large majority passed the Bill for a plural vote, proposed by M. Nyssens, and the general council of the Labour Party immediately ordered work to be resumed, and the struggle for universal suffrage and political equality to be henceforward carried on by means of propaganda. The next day the strike was practically ended, but in the Borinage district, where it was due, as has been already stated, to economic rather than political causes, it continued for a few days longer. Shortly before it ended, the members of the Typographic Compositors' and Printers' Free Association at Brussels, the rules of which do not allow of any participation in purely political movements, decided by a majority of 80 to join the Labour Party in the demand for universal suffrage, but they returned to work before the morning was over.(5)

D.—Prevention and Settlement of Strikes.

1. Councils of prud' hommes.

Disputes between individual employers and workpeople, or between one workman and another, relating to the execution of contracts and agreements, come within the jurisdiction of the councils of prud'hommes. These are district boards composed of employers and employed in equal numbers, representing the various industries in the locality. They were originally created by the French law of March 18, 1806, but completely remodelled by the law of February 7, 1859. This was a great improvement on the previous law, but many complaints of partiality and injustice were laid before the Labour Commission, which thoroughly investigated the constitution of the councils. Under the law of 1859, provisional lists of electors were drawn up by the communal authorities, and submitted for revision to the permanent committees of each province. All electors must belong to the class of employers of labour (*chefs d'industrie*) or workmen, be Belgian subjects by birth or naturalisation, and domiciled within the jurisdiction of the council. They must be over 25 years of age, must have exercised their calling for at least four years in the given district, and be able to read and write. Inscription on the electoral lists could only be claimed as an absolute right by those who had received the special distinction for skill and good character instituted in 1847, or who had invested at least 100 francs in a savings bank or pension fund, or had been granted a reward for bravery by a Royal decree. The investigation of the Commission showed that "the communal authorities, before drawing up "the electoral lists, applied, as a rule, to the police, "who, in their turn, derived their information from "the employers of labour." Thus, the employers could practically nominate those of their staff whom they considered worthy to represent their fellow-workmen. Another grievance alleged by the workmen was that foremen and overmen (*contremaîtres* and *porions*) were classed with workmen, whereas they

(1.) Law of 1859.

(1) Vandervelde, I., p. 81. Hubert. "Historique de l'Association libre," pp. 137-265.
(2) Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," I., pp. 208, 228. Commission du Travail, I., p. 398; II. B., p. 37.
(3) "Labour Gazette," July 1893, p. 69; August, p. 92.
(4) "Pall Mall Gazette," April 24th, 1893.
(5) "La Réforme," Nos. 102-15. "L'Indépendance belge," Nos. 105-10.

really represented the interests of the employer, rather than those of the men. In several cases, also, important industries were not represented on the councils. For instance, the printers at Ghent stated that sugar refining, an industry which was almost extinct at Ghent, was represented, whereas other branches of industry in greater activity, such as printing, had no representative. The prud'hommes were also frequently unacquainted with the trades in which disputes had arisen, and could not understand the technical terms. The presence of innkeepers in several councils constituted a further abuse, as these men were suspected of turning their position on the council to their own advantage. For these reasons the mass of the working classes took very little interest in the councils, as may be seen from the returns cited by M. Sabatier in his Report: In 1881 at Dour, out of 735 electors only 116 voted; at Pâturages, out of 578 electors only 75 voted. In 1884 at Dour, out of 842 electors only 119 voted; at Pâturages, out of 658 electors only 49 voted. In short, as M. Sabatier states, there was general indifference, although in some coal mines the managers insisted that the men should go and vote.(1)

The employers, on the other hand, were not satisfied with the existing conditions, which they declared were too favourable to the men. Article 38 of the law stipulated that if a question was brought before the council, and the number of employers' and workmen's representatives were not equal, it should be deferred to a subsequent sitting. At the second sitting it could be decided, provided that four prud'hommes were present, even though the representation might still be unequal.

(2.) Law of 1889.

In consequence of the report published by the Labour Commission, the Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Public Works laid a Bill embodying most of the recommendations of the Commission before the Chamber in December 1887. A lengthy discussion in the Senate and in the Chamber followed the introduction of the Bill, but, after certain modifications had been made, it became law on July 31st, 1889. According to article 3 of this law all councils of prud'hommes must be established by a special law, which determines the district of the council. Special councils for certain industries, or groups of industries, can be established in one district, provided that the industries are of sufficient importance, or special chambers can be established in one and the same council. The number of members, and the composition of each council and of the chambers, are determined by a Royal decree, after the opinion of the communal councils in the district, and of the permanent provincial committees has been obtained. Each council consists of at least six members, without including the president and vice-president, unless they are chosen from the members of the council, and each chamber must comprise at least four members. Half of the members of the council and chambers are chosen by the employers, and half by the men. At least four deputy-members, chosen in the same manner, are attached to each council.

α. Electorate.

The communal authorities are now obliged to register upon the electoral lists all persons who satisfy the following conditions: They must be *bonâ fide* employers or workmen, and be Belgian subjects over 25 years of age, domiciled for at least one year within the district of the council, and they must have followed their calling there for at least four years. Persons who have practised their calling in the district for at least four years without living there may be permitted to be inscribed on the list. The reading and writing test is altogether abolished. Contrary to the recommendation of the Commission, and to the original form of the Bill, foremen are still included in the category of workmen. Criminals, bankrupts, and persons of notoriously bad character cannot be registered on the lists.

β. Constitution.

Electors over 30 years of age are eligible as prud'hommes. Retired employers and workmen who fulfil the other necessary conditions are also eligible, but these, as well as foremen and shipmasters, may not exceed one-fourth of the total number of members of the council. Inn-keepers and retailers of spirits are ineligible; two employers belonging to the same firm, two men in the same workshop, or two persons nearly related cannot belong to the same council. The employers and men each hold meetings to elect their several representatives, voting by ballot. Half of the representatives of the employers and employed respectively retire every three years, but may be re-elected. The president and vice-president, one of whom must be an employer and the other a workman, are appointed by Royal decree from the members of the council, or from a double list of candidates chosen by employers and employed. Where several chambers are included in a council, they elect their own presidents and vice-presidents. Each council appoints from among its members a Board of Conciliation (*Bureau de conciliation*) composed of one employer and one workman. An election is held quarterly, when the same members can be re-elected. The board meets at least once a week, and considers all matters in dispute before they are brought before the council, to which they must be referred if the board fails to arrange them. The clerk (*greffier*) of the council attends the meetings of the board.

γ. Meetings and procedure.

The council meets at least twice a month, and can only sit when an equal number of employers' and of workmen's representatives are present, two of each forming a quorum. These cannot include the president and vice-president, unless they were appointed from among the members of the council. If the council is unable to hold a session, owing to the absence of any member from two consecutive meetings, such member is summoned before the court of appeal in the district, and sentenced to a fine of from 26 to 200 francs, and from three to eight days' imprisonment, or to one only of these penalties. The councils deal with disputes between workpeople, or between employers and workpeople, arising in connection with labour and wages. Without prejudice to the proceedings before the ordinary tribunals, they may also punish breaches of contract, and conduct tending to a breach of the peace. The punishment in such cases may not exceed a fine of 25 francs, and an appeal may be made within eight days to the civil court of first instance in the district. Matters outside the jurisdiction of the councils, such as disputes between employers, may, with the consent of both parties, be brought before them. The prud'hommes pronounce judgment without appeal for sums not exceeding 200 francs; above that sum, appeal may be made to the tribunal of commerce, or, in matters relating to mines, to the civil tribunal of first instance. The clerk of the council gives one day's notice to the parties of the place, date, and hour when they are bound to appear, together with their witnesses. Should either party fail to appear, judgment is given by default, but in certain cases the parties may be represented by proxy. No lawyers are employed. In cases of equality, the president has a casting vote. One or more prud'hommes may be deputed by the council and board to visit the spot for the purpose of verifying alleged circumstances, and, if necessary, examining witnesses.

δ. Finances.

"The expenditure incurred by the councils of prud'hommes is met by all the communes comprised in the council's districts, in proportion to the number of workmen employed in each commune, according to a scheme of distribution drawn up by the permanent provincial committee; the court-rooms and cells for prisoners are also provided by the communal authorities." The salaries of the ushers (*huissiers*), and the sums allowed to experts and witnesses, are fixed by a Royal decree. The clerks' salaries vary from 600 to 1,700 francs, and are paid by the Government. In the estimates for the Department of Agriculture, Industry, and Public Works for 1891 a vote of 23,400 francs was asked for this service. The expenditure of the Brussels council of prud'-hommes in 1890 was as follows:—(2)

—	Authorised Expenditure.	Actual Expenditure.
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
1. Salaries (jetons de présence)	3,400 0	3,065 0
2. Travelling expenses	100 0	0 0
3. Indemnity for experts and witnesses	100 0	10 0
4. Expenses for lighting, &c.	500 0	400 0
5. Sundry expenses:—		
a. Messengers' wages	1,200 0	1,200 0
b. Correspondence	100 0	65 85
c. Library	150 0	137 45
d. Printing	125 0	109 0
e. Unforeseen expenses	100 0	7 0
	5,775 0	4,994 30
	4,994 30	
Unexpended balance	780 70	

(1) Commission du Travail, III., pp. 427-40.

(2) Commission du Travail, I., pp. 428-48; III., pp. 427-40. Loi organique des Conseils de Prud'-hommes, 31 Juillet 1889. Foreign Office, Miscellaneous Series, No. 198. Bouree. "Les Conditions du Travail en Belgique," pp. 52-5.

c. Number of councils.

The number of councils of prud'hommes in existence at the end of 1891 and the work done by them between 1862 and that date are shown in the annexed tables.(1)

A.—TABLE showing the Number of Councils of Prud'hommes in December 1891.

District.	Date of Establishment.	Number of Communes in the District.
Alost	February 26th, 1844	65
Antwerp	July 26th, 1846	60
Audenarde	September 30th, 1859	20
Bruges	March 1st, 1813	65
Brussels	December 22nd, 1848	1
Charleroi	June 9th, 1884	39
Courtrai	April 9th, 1842	50
Dour	June 4th, 1850	(1)
Eecloo	May 31st, 1859	21
Ghent	August 28th, 1810	86
Grammont	November 7th, 1859	16
Ixelles	May 8th, 1888	14
La Louvière	June 9th, 1884	12
Liége	August 9th, 1887	11
Lokeren	October 3rd, 1843	3
Molenbeek-Saint-Jean	June 30th, 1865	12
Mouscron	May 31st, 1859	11
Ostend	May 31st, 1859	4
Pâturages	June 4th, 1850	(2)
Renaix	August 2nd, 1843	27
Roulers	April 6th, 1845	6
Saint-Nicholas	October 3rd, 1843	27
Termond	October 3rd, 1843	27
Thielt	May 31st, 1859	9
Tournai	July 1st, 1860	62
Verviers	May 31st, 1859	32
Ypres	April 9th, 1842	47

B.—TABLE showing the Work done by the Councils of Prud'hommes before December 1891.

Year.	Number of Councils.	Disputes.							Cases arranged by conciliation.	Cases not arranged by conciliation.	Cases arranged by arbitration.	Cases left undecided by the action of the parties concerned.	Cases pending.
		Within the Jurisdiction of the Council.			Outside the Jurisdiction of the Council.			Total.					
		Workmen.	Employers and Workmen.	Employers.	Workmen.	Employers and Workmen.	Employers.						
1862	22	132	2,517	55	1	20	36	2,761	2,345	—	179	201	36
1865	—	80	3,171	26	22	46	37	3,382	2,712	—	419	326	21
1870	—	87	3,238	24	92	45	50	3,536	2,687	—	579	242	28
1875	—	160	3,711	11	12	179	85	4,158	2,750	—	578	494	17
1878	—	149	3,501	10	3	37	25	3,725	2,941	—	373	389	22
1879	—	127	2,991	8	—	40	23	3,189	2,476	—	286	420	7
1880	23	143	3,360	2	—	59	27	3,591	2,371	564	264	443	3
1881	—	171	2,975	9	3	47	17	3,222	2,152	575	273	484	15
1882	—	220	3,238	1	1	61	24	3,545	1,951	809	589	558	60
1883	—	220	2,999	3	3	66	23	3,314	2,183	571	275	560	16
1884	—	205	2,963	—	6	79	19	3,272	2,287	473	301	497	18
1885	—	260	2,966	—	2	100	8	3,336	2,365	503	322	458	14
1886	—	224	3,161	—	—	108	16	3,509	2,333	597	336	554	35
1887	—	230	3,810	—	1	110	20	4,171	3,079	1,092	425	650	17
1888	—	235	3,959	—	13	109	17	4,333	3,071	1,262	507	717	38
1889	25	255	4,206	—	5	110	2	4,578	3,391	1,187	477	695	15
1890	—	212	4,235	—	—	84	—	4,531	3,399	1,132	457	667	8
1891	—	215	4,782	—	—	80	1	5,078	3,250	1,828	838	967	23

2. Councils of conciliation and arbitration.

(1.) Chambers of explanations.

Councils of conciliation and arbitration owe their existence in Belgium to M. Julien Weiler, mining engineer (*ingénieur du matériel*) at the collieries of Mariemont and Bascoup. After the strike at Mariemont in 1875-6 M. Weiler organised Chambers of explanations (*Chambres d'explications*) in the workshops. These were meetings of clerks or foremen (*employés* or *contremaîtres*) and workmen, held from time to time to discuss all questions that might arise in connection with their work. Each of the nine branches of industry in the workshops was represented by a committee of six workmen and six clerks or foremen, the same clerks belonging to several committees. A central committee, composed of a delegate from each group, was instituted for the discussion of general questions. At first, owing to lack of previous organisation among the workmen, and to the fact that the establishment of the Chambers coincided with a serious reduction of wages, the result was not satisfactory. The workmen appeared to consider the scheme a mere device for effecting further reductions, and obstinately refused to give it a trial. However, after the Chambers had been established for three years, and after some modifications had been made in their organisation, several important results were found to have been achieved. Fines were entirely abolished, while the officials were unanimously of opinion that the regulations had never been more respected; moreover, the regulations were revised by the central committee. The system of task-work, which had previously been considered impracticable, was successfully organised, and the cost of production (*prix de revient*) was diminished by at least 20 per cent., whilst wages were advanced to an equal extent. On January 1st, 1880, the enginemen and stokers (*machinistes* and *chauffeurs*), numbering about 250 in all, were included in the organisation. At present the Chambers of explanations exist only for the workers connected with the machinery (*matériel*), and have not yet been extended to the colliers properly so-called, although the rules of the councils of conciliation and arbitration provide that they may be established in all branches where they would be beneficial. They are divided into a workshop and haulage section and a machine section, each of which is subdivided into as many committees as there are branches of industry to be represented. In the workshops and haulage section there are ten committees, and in the machine section twelve. The committees are composed of delegates elected by the workmen, with a chief delegate (*chef de délégation*) chosen by the delegates. Each committee meets once a quarter, and at the close of the quarter meetings of the foremen (*chefs de brigade* and *chefs-machinistes*), and general meetings of the workmen in the section are held. The meetings take place during working hours, and the chief engineer of that division presides. The Chambers have frequently been of use in arranging disputed questions, and preventing ill feeling between the companies and the workmen.(1)

(2.) Councils of conciliation and arbitration.

(a.) In mines. a. Constitution.

In January 1888 a council of conciliation and arbitration was instituted at both Mariemont and Bascoup for all classes of workmen employed there. The rules of the two councils are almost identical; each is composed of six representatives of the Company and six representatives of the workmen. The Company chooses its representatives from among the staff (*agents gradés*), including the general manager, and six other members are appointed to act as deputies. The workmen's representatives are nominated by an electoral body of 36 delegates appointed by a majority of the votes of the workmen employed at the various pits, which are classed in six groups for the election of delegates. Only those workmen can vote who are over 21 years of age and have been employed for at least six months at the colliery. The delegates and the Company's representatives must be over 30 years of age, and have been engaged at the colliery for at least five years. A board, consisting of the workmen's president and secretary, and an assessor chosen by the meeting, conducts the election of the workmen's representatives, who are elected from among the delegates by a majority of votes. The members of the council serve for two years, half

(1) Annuaire statistique de la Belgique, 1892, p. 292.

(2) Demeure. "Note sur les Chambres d'Explications," pp. 4-14. Weiler. "L'Arbitrage entre Patrons et Ouvriers," pp. 4-6.

retire annually, but may be re-elected. A president and vice-president are appointed annually, one president and one secretary being chosen from the workmen. Chambers of explanations, to elucidate technicalities, may, if necessary, be established in any branch of the industry. Where these Chambers exist, all questions must be submitted to them before being referred to the council. If necessary, Boards of conciliation (*Bureaux de conciliation*) are instituted to examine questions which concern one group only, and matters which they cannot decide are referred to the council.

β. Meetings of the councils.

The president convokes meetings of the council, at which two-thirds of the representatives of each side can form a quorum. Questions of general interest must be discussed by the whole of the representatives. The president has one vote only; in case of an equality of votes the question is referred to the management of the Company. Prior to the examination of a disputed point, and during its discussion, work must be continued under the conditions which existed when the difficulty arose. Both parties agree to accept the council's decisions, which are valid for at least three months, and the same question cannot be revived within that period. All the expenses of the council are defrayed by the Company. Each representative and delegate is allowed 2 francs for each meeting that he attends, and is indemnified for all time thus lost; the secretaries receive in addition an annual salary determined by the council.

γ. Work of the councils.

At the second meeting of the Bascoup council, five questions were brought forward by the workmen, three of which were decided in their favour; one complaint was withdrawn after investigation, and one was proved to be without foundation. During 1888, the first year of its establishment, the Bascoup council investigated 19 general questions, 10 relating to only one group or branch of workmen, and 10 concerning individuals. In 1891 it investigated 33 general, 12 special, and 2 individual questions. Both at Bascoup and Mariemont important questions, such as advance of wages, reduction of hours, or additional safeguards for workers have been amicably settled by these councils. The complete organisation of all work done in these mines and the system of payment adopted(1) have contributed greatly to the absence of friction. The good feeling induced by these institutions is further shown by the language of the vice-president of the Mariemont council in February 1891. He stated that, in the event of a general strike for the revision of the Constitution, the men employed at Mariemont would be obliged to support it, but he begged the managers not to consider the movement as anything beyond a political demonstration, and trusted that the councils would not be affected, and that the good relations between the managers and the workmen would continue unchanged. The influence of the councils may be seen from the fact that during the political strike in May 1891, work at the Bascoup collieries was not interrupted. A reduction in wages of 20 per cent. has been recently accepted by the miners at Mariemont and Bascoup in accordance with an agreement by which the rate of wages varies with the selling price of coal. It thus appears that the councils have gained sufficient power to surmount any difficulties that may arise in connection with the conditions of labour in these collieries.

(b.) Other industries.

In June 1886 a joint council was established at Brussels, composed of five representatives of the master tailors' and five representatives of the journeymen tailors' societies, with the object of effecting a settlement by conciliating all differences that might arise between employers and employed. The board consisted of a president and secretary elected half-yearly, the former an employer, and the latter a workman, and six other members representing employers and employed, who served for two months in alphabetical order. Meetings were held weekly, and in the event of a dispute the whole council met, and endeavoured to arrive at an amicable settlement. In August 1886, 83 employers and 300 journeymen were affiliated to the council, and good results had been attained. A similar council had previously been established in the shoemaking trade by the society "*Le Maintien.*"

In some other industries, among printers and jewellers, for instance, where no permanent joint council exists, if any dispute arises, a committee of workmen is constituted to discuss the matter with the employer, or a committee of employers. According to the statement of a delegate of the Brussels printers, the committee generally effects a compromise, for, as strikes are supported by the funds of the society, it is to its interest to avoid them as far as possible.(2)

3. Councils of industry and labour.

In consequence of the riots which occurred in the spring of 1886, it was considered necessary to establish some institution by which differences arising between employers and employed might be amicably settled. On October 29th, 1886, two schemes were submitted to the Labour Commission by MM. Brants and Denis, the former for the establishment of councils of conciliation, the latter for the institution of elective bodies which should concern themselves both theoretically and practically with all labour interests, and which should establish councils of conciliation wherever and whenever necessary. On May 5th of the same year M. Frère-Orban had brought before the Chamber a Bill for the establishment of councils of industry and labour, which became law on August 16th, 1887.

These councils are instituted to be "primarily administrative bodies, charged with the collection of statistical data bearing on the state of industry, price of food, rate of wages, averages of rents, both at home and abroad, and on all matters connected with trade and labour; and secondarily, consultative institutions, bringing masters and men together, in the absence of any industrial struggle, and before any contest should break out, to deliberate and pronounce an opinion on all matters affecting their common interests." In certain cases the Government is obliged to consult these councils. Thus they differ both from the councils of conciliation and arbitration, and from the councils of prud'hommes. The former are voluntary tribunals due to private initiative, and their action is restricted to the amicable arrangement of industrial disputes. No general rules exist as to their electorate or mode of procedure. The main differences between the councils of industry and labour and the councils of prud'hommes are that the latter consider questions arising out of a violation of contracts, and their deliberations and decisions are based on these contracts. They cannot compel an employer to pay a higher wage than that which he had undertaken to pay, or to decrease the hours of labour, if a given number of hours were explicitly or tacitly agreed to beforehand. The councils of industry and labour, on the other hand, deal with questions in which no contract is presupposed; their object is to induce the formation of new contracts on the best possible terms. To this end, it is necessary for them to be able to form an estimate of the state of the industry, the intensity of competition, the customs of the locality, and all other matters affecting industrial production. Again, the decisions of the prud'hommes are binding, whereas the opinions expressed by the councils of industry and labour may be accepted or not, at the discretion of the parties concerned.

Law, 1889.

The law of August 16th, 1887, instituting the councils of industry and labour, was largely based on the law of 1859 reconstructing the councils of prud'hommes. Considerable difficulties arose as to the interpretation of articles 4 and 5, respecting the election of candidates, which referred to the analogous clauses in the law of 1859. The Royal decree of July 31st, 1888, explaining the means of enforcing the law of 1887, was also necessarily based on the law respecting the prud'hommes, the revision of which was already under discussion. On the publication of the law of July 31st, 1889, concerning the councils of prud'hommes, it was found necessary to make important modifications in the law constituting the councils of industry and labour; and a Royal decree was published on August 15th of the same year, by which the educational test and residence in the district of the council are no longer required from electors.

α. Constitution of the councils.

The councils are established by Royal decree, either spontaneously, or at the request of the communal council, or of employers or employed residing in the district. The extent of the councils and the number and nature of their sections are determined by the decree. Each council is divided into sections corresponding in number to that of the industries in the locality of sufficient importance for representation. From six to twelve representatives of employers and

(1) *See* p. 25.

(2) Weiler. "L'Esprit des Institutions ouvrières de Mariemont," p. 16. Conseil de conciliation et d'arbitrage des charbonnages de Mariemont. Rules. Id. Reports, 1888, 1889, 1890, 1891. Conseil de conciliation et d'arbitrage des charbonnages de Bascoup. Reports, 1888, 1889, 1890, 1891. Commission du Travail, II. B., pp. 4, 97, 132. "De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage en France et à l'Etranger, pp. 415-32, 460-8.

men are comprised in each section; the number is fixed by the decree.

In August 1888 and July and August 1889 ministerial circulars were addressed to the provincial governors, asking for certain information respecting the topographical limits to be assigned to each council, the number of sections into which each should be divided, and the approximate number of employers and workmen to be represented in each section. Mr. Gosselin gives in his Report a summary of the Royal decree of January 13th, 1890, instituting the council at Brussels, by which the number of sections is fixed at twenty-one. "It is noteworthy that in the list of trades represented "on the Brussels council no mention is made of "bakers, butchers, confectioners, or of any other "trade connected with the supply of food, nor is any "representation accorded to the trades specially fol-"lowed by women." The mode of election is similar to that for the councils of prud'hommes, and the delegates hold office for three years, when they may be re-elected. Each section elects a president and secretary, and meets at least once a year. A commissioner may be appointed by the Government to attend the meetings of the whole council, to make such communications as he may deem advantageous, and, if necessary, to take part in the debates. The communal authorities in the towns where the councils meet are obliged to furnish the accommodation necessary for the sittings of the council or of the sections. A daily allowance, the amount of which is fixed by the permanent committee of each province, is paid from the provincial exchequer to the members of the councils or sections. When necessary, as, for instance, in the case of a strike, the provincial governor, the burgomaster, or the president, at the request of either employers or employed, can call a special meeting of the section interested in the dispute to endeavour to arrange the difficulty by means of conciliation. The Sovereign may convoke the whole council of the district, or several sections belonging to the same or to different districts, to advise on matters of general interest relating to labour and industry. In the spring of 1891, the various sections of the councils of industry and labour throughout the kingdom were convoked by Royal decrees, in extraordinary session, to deliberate respecting information to be furnished to the Government on wages, price of food-stuffs, and workmen's receipts and expenditure, in view of studying questions raised by the termination of commercial treaties. The dates were specified by which the councils must have concluded their labours. Since the establishment of the councils of industry and labour, this was the first occasion on which they were united to deliberate on a subject affecting the general interest and welfare of the kingdom. In the opinion of the Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Public Works, this was the most satisfactory investigation of the kind that had ever been made in Belgium. In October and December 1891, several sections of the councils in the district of Charleroi met to decide a disputed point in the glass trade. A Royal decree was issued in March 1892 convoking the various sections of the councils of industry and labour to deliberate upon the conditions of labour of women and children protected by the law of 1889. The information thus gathered was submitted to the higher council of labour instituted in April 1892.(1) A few sections of the councils have occasionally been called upon to act as councils of conciliation; this has been done, for instance, at Quenast, Wasmes, Brussels, Seraing, Ghent, and Liége. The main difficulties with which the councils have to contend are apathy or hostility on the part of employers and workmen. In several cases, as, for instance, at Morlanwelz, sections, and even whole councils, have not been constituted because the electors have abstained from voting. The want of adequate representation of the various branches of industry is also an impediment to the action of the councils; in the iron trade, for example, all questions have to be considered by only four workmen's representatives, who cannot be acquainted with all technical points.(2)

β. Work of the councils.

(1) *See* p. 39.

(2) Morisseaux. "Conseils de l'Industrie et du Travail," pp. 9–85, 163–285. Bourée. "Les Conditions du Travail en Belgique," p. 56. Foreign Office Miscellaneous Series, No. 110, p. 6. Foreign Office Miscellaneous Series, No. 198, p. 14. Commission du Travail, III., pp. 1, 18, 593; IV., pp. 3, 17–24. "De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage en France et à l'Etranger," pp. 432–59.

C.—Table showing the Councils of Industry and Labour established prior to May 30th 1892:— γ. Number of the councils.

District.	Date of Establishment.
Quenast	February 15th, 1889.
Grivegnée	December 4th "
Boussu	" 10th "
Bernissart	" 10th "
Pâturages	" 17th "
Wasmes	" 17th "
Quaregnon	" 17th "
Frameries	" 17th "
Glin	" 21st "
Hornu	" 21st "
Ciply	" 21st "
Jodoigne	" 21st "
Dour	" 21st "
Flénu	" 21st "
Cuesmes	" 21st "
Fraipont	" 21st "
Liége	" 27th "
Seraing	January 8th, 1890.
Brussels	" 13th "
Ghent	May 26th, "
Roux	July 2nd "
Farcienues	" 2nd "
Ransart	" 2nd "
Jumet	" 2nd "
Gilly	" 3rd "
Marchienne-au-Pont	" 3rd "
Châtelet	" 3rd "
Charleroi	" 3rd "
Courtrai	" 15th "
Ostend	August 25th, "
Jemeppe-sur-Meuse	March 14th, 1891.
La Louvière	" 27th "
Haine St. Pierre	" 27th "
Maffles	" 27th "
Anderlues	" 27th "
Lessines	April 4th "
Hondenz-Aymeries	" 4th "
Havre	" 4th "
Anvelais	" 6th "
Soignies	" 6th "
Dison	" 15th "
Bruges	" 23rd "
Verviers	May 5th "
Huy	June 12th "
Braine le Comte	July 10th "
Morlanwelz	" 10th "
Wesseren	September 28th, 1891.
Dinant	February 22nd, 1892.
Termond	May 3rd, 1892.
Alost	" 24th "

DIVISION II.—CONDITIONS OF LABOUR IN CERTAIN SPECIAL INDUSTRIES.

Important changes have taken place in the conditions of labour in all industries since the investigations of the Labour Commission in 1886–7. Thus, the statistics then gathered respecting wages, hours, and other conditions have now little value, except for purposes of comparison. As a general rule, the condition of the labouring classes in Belgium has greatly improved of recent years. This is shown by a comparison established by the Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Public Works, between the average rate of wages in 1846 and 1891 in 24 industries at Brussels.(3) Changes in recent years.

D.—Table showing Average Daily Wage in 1846 and 1891:—

Industry.	Average Daily Wage. 1846.	1891.
	Francs.	Francs.
Masons	1·70	3·75
Stone cutters	1·79	4
Carpenters	1·95	3·80
Plasterers	1·88	3·50
Moulders in plaster	2·25	4
House-painters	1·70	3·75
Cabinet-makers and carvers	1·98	5
Turners (wood)	1·85	4
Blacksmiths	1·75	4·50
" (shoe-smiths)	2	4·50
Locksmiths and stove-makers	2·38	4·50
Turners (iron)	1·84	4·50
Tanners	1·62	4·10
Skin dressers	2·24	4
Glovemakers	4	5·30
Hat-makers (felt)	2·25	4·75
" (straw)	1·80	4·15
Type-founders	1·88	4·50
Printers	2·50	5·50
Bookbinders	2	3·50
Goldsmiths	2·55	4·50
Jewellers	2·55	6
Watchmakers	2·20	6
Engravers	2·10	4·50

The above table shows a considerable advance in each case, although, for various reasons, it is not the

(3) Armand Julin. "Une Enquête en Belgique sur les Salaires, les Prix et les Budgets ouvriers." "La Réforme sociale," Oct. 16, 1892, p. 563.

same in the different industries. In most industries the hours of labour have also been shortened. Safety of employment is now guaranteed by means of improved ventilation and sanitation, and thorough inspection in accordance with the Royal decrees of April and May 1884, and the law of May 5th, 1888. The truck system, which was the subject of bitter complaint in 1886, has been checked by the law regulating the payment of workmen's wages. The excessive employment of women and children, which formed one of the main grounds of complaint before the Commission, has been regulated by law, and acts and Royal decrees dealing with numerous other abuses either have been published, or are about to be published.(1)

General summary of the conditions of employment.

In Belgium, as elsewhere, factories have almost universally taken the place of small workshops. The Cockerill Iron and Coal Company at Seraing, which, according to M. Guérin, inaugurated the development of large industries on the Continent, is one of the most important in Europe. The bronze industry has, at present, been very little affected by the influence of machinery; the workers are scattered in about fifty establishments of varying size and importance, where their numbers range from three or four in the smaller workshops to 250 in the Bronze Company's works. A considerable number of chasers work in their own homes. Jewellery still remains amongst the small industries. The gun industry at Liége is especially interesting. As far as its importance and the value of the products are concerned, it must be considered a large industry, but in method of working it belongs to the small industries. Division of labour has been always customary, but M. Morisseaux states that machinery is scarcely employed at all, and that there are no large factories. There are a number of small workshops, where the various portions of the work are made, each workman brings his own manufacture to the office (*bureau*), called at Liége the "shop" (*boutique*), where it is tested. The gun maker (*marchand d'armes*) has only a small workshop, where the guns are finished off by picked workmen, and immediately exported. This system of working is exactly similar to that of the workshops (*boutiques de métiers*) in the middle ages. Baking is done on a large scale in the co-operative bakeries (*brood-fabrieken*), which have had a great influence on the trade.(2) The introduction of machinery has revolutionised the marble and wood industries. Marble polishing is now done by machinery, and, besides the mechanical motors employed in large carpenters' workshops, there are three important establishments where all preparatory work is executed by machinery, leaving only the finishing touches to be done by hand. The cigar industry has also been much affected by the introduction of moulds, which minimise the difficulty of manufacture. In large towns the cigar-makers resist the introduction of machinery, but in smaller towns many are found who willingly adopt the new system. In the clothing trades there is great competition between factory workers and workers by hand, except in glove-making, where the workmen practically control the conditions under which they work. Of recent years, the glass industry has been much injured by the competition of sheet and moulded glass.(3) In the printing and textile industries the use of machinery is now general.(4)

A.—Mines, Quarries, and Metals.

1. Coal mines.

For mining purposes, Belgium is divided into two districts, with their adminstrative centres at Mons and Liége. The first includes Hainault, Brabant, and Flanders, and the second the remaining five provinces. Practically, however, the coal industry is confined to Hainault, Namur, and Liége. The authorities charged with the supervision of mines are the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Public Works, and the permanent provincial committees. Subservient to these are the engineers of mines, consisting of the Director-General resident in Brussels, two divisional directors resident at Mons and Liége, and a certain number of district engineers. The French law of 1810 is the basis of Belgian mining legislation, which has been subsequently modified by the laws of 1837 and 1865. In mines worked under concession, fixed royalties of not less than 25 centimes the hectare are paid to the proprietor of the soil, and 10 francs the square kilometre to the Government. Proportional taxes are also paid on the net proceeds of the mine, in accordance with the decision of the Valuation Committee, which includes the governor of the province and the district engineer. The fixed royalty is paid by all mines, but the proportional royalty is paid only by mines which realise some profit. Very few cases exist where a concession has been divided; the tendency is rather to amalgamate two or more neighbouring concessions, as they are usually of small extent. 239 mines were under concession in 1891, but only 133 of these were worked. No instance has occurred of the Government withdrawing a concession from mines that are not worked.(5)

Mining royalties.

In 1891 the number of mines worked was 272; 2,155 steam-engines of a total horse-power of 128,261 were employed in working the mines during that year. The total output in 1891 was 19,675,644 tons, valued in round numbers at 247,454,000 francs. As compared with 1890, this showed a decrease of 690,316 tons in production, and of 21,049,000 francs in the estimated value. According to the statement of M. Harzé, this decrease was mainly due to the strike in May 1891.(6) The average value per ton, which was 13·18 francs in 1890, fell in 1891 to 12·58 francs. During 1891, 1,878,101 tons of coal were consumed in working the machines, or 9½ per cent. of the total output, of an estimated value of 12,208,000 francs. The net output was thus 17,797,543 tons, of an average value of 13·22 francs. Including wages and all other expenses, the total outlay amounted to 211,593,000 francs; thus the cost price per ton was 10·75 francs, or 0·45 in excess of that during the previous year, and the net profit was 1·82 francs per ton, as compared with 2·88 francs in 1890.

(*a.*) Number of mines worked, output, and cost of production.

The following table shows the average selling price per ton in the various mining centres in 1890 and 1891, with the actual average commercial value in the latter year:—(7)

Selling price.

		1890.	1891.	Decrease.	Commercial Value.
		Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
Hainault.	Couchant de Mons	13·68	13·14	0·54	14·46
	Centre and West Charleroi	13·16	12·31	0·85	12·80
	Charleroi	12·18	11·99	0·19	12·61
Namur		10·95	10·18	0·77	10·69
Liége		14·08	13·20	0·88	13·43

The total production of coke in 1891 was 1,742,075 tons, estimated at 18·67 francs per ton, while in 1890 it was 2,176,755 tons, valued at 23·62 francs. Mainly as a result of the strike in 1891,(8) the importation of coke rose from 65,339 in 1890 to 140,576 tons in 1891.

The total number of workers in 1891 was 118,983, considerably more than in any previous year. As compared with the two preceding years, there was a marked decrease in the number of women and girls employed below ground—3,691, as against 4,115 and 4,193—whereas the total number of underground workers had greatly increased. The number of women and girls employed above ground was almost the same as in 1890 and 1889. By article 9 of the law of December 13th, 1889, (9) which came into force on January 1st, 1892, the employment underground of women and girls under 21 years of age is prohibited, though an exception is made for those already employed. The employment of women underground had already been completely abolished several years previously at the Mariemont and Bascoup collieries.(10) Amongst the countries represented at the Fourth International Miners' Congress held at Brussels in May 1893, Belgium alone was found to allow women and girls to work underground, and even the Belgian delegates joined in a resolution altogether prohibiting their employment in and about mines.

(*b.*) Number of work-people. Women and children.

(1) *See* p. 51.
(2) *See* p. 35.
(3) *See* p. 32.
(4) Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," I. *passim.* Morisseaux. "Conseils de l'Industrie et du Travail," p. 55.

(5) Fourth Report of the Royal Commission on Mining Royalties, pp. 3, 127, 131, 150.
(6) *See* p. 16.
(7) Statistique des Mines, Minières, &c., 1892, p. 2.
(8) *See* p. 16.
(9) *See* p. 52.
(10) *See* p. 10.

E.—Table showing the Number of Workers of all Categories in 1891 as compared with 1890 and 1889.(1)

District.	Underground Labour.						Total.
	Men and Boys.			Women and Girls.			
	Age over 16.	Age 14 to 16.	Age 12 to 14.	Age over 21.	Age 16 to 21.	Age 14 to 16.	
Hainault - -	55,584	4,399	1,988	637	2,167	664	65,439
Namur - - -	2,051	208	96	9	25	2	2,391
Liége - - -	20,312	1,468	451	77	93	17	22,418
1891 - - -	77,947	6,075	2,535	723	2,285	683	90,248
		8,610		3,008			
1890 - - -	75,315	9,608		3,170		945	89,038
1889 - - -	68,409	9,383		3,233		960	81,985

Above Ground.

District.	Men and Boys.			Women and Girls.			Total.
	Age over 16.	Age 14 to 16.	Age 12 to 14.	Age over 21.	Age 16 to 21.	Age 14 to 16.	
Hainault - -	14,098	1,213	738	996	2,132	2,184	21,361
Namur - - -	539	97	77	25	82	68	888
Liége - - -	4,370	248	174	507	697	490	6,486
1891 - - -	19,007	1,558	989	1,528	2,911	2,742	28,735
		2,547		4,439			
1890 - - -	18,111	2,499		4,368		2,763	27,741
1889 - - -	17,087	2,515		4,132		2,663	26,397

F.—Statement showing the Number of Workers, with the Average Annual Output in 1889–1891.(2)

District.	Number of Workers.				Number of Days worked.	Annual Output in Tons.				
	Underground.		Above-ground.	Total.		Underground.		Average above-ground.	General Average per Worker.	Average per District.
	Hewers.	Workers of all Categories.	Workers of all Categories.			Average per Hewer.	Average per Worker of all Categories.			
Hainault { Couchant de Mons.	6,507	25,324	6,650	31,974	286	676	173	667	138	4,399,010
Hainault { Centre, and West Charleroi.	4,808	19,935	6,698	26,633	294	1,015	245	729	183	4,882,080
Hainault { Charleroi -	5,015	20,180	8,013	28,193	276	991	246	620	176	4,969,250
Namur - - -	710	2,391	888	3,279	282	770	233	615	167	546,537
Liége - - -	4,713	22,418	6,486	28,904	288	1,035	218	752	169	4,878,767
1891 - - -	21,753	90,248	28,735	118,983	286	904	218	685	165	19,675,644
1890 - - -	21,541	89,038	27,741	116,779	293	945	229	734	174	20,365,960
1889 - - -	20,281	81,985	26,397	108,382	295	988	242	753	184	19,869,980

(1) Statistique des Mines, etc., 1890, p. 6; 1891, p. 8; 1892, p. 5.

(2) Id., 1892, pp. 6, 7.

(*c.*) Wages. *a.* Daily average.

The following table shows the average daily wages of hewers (*abatteurs* or *ouvriers à veine*) in 1889, 1890, and 1891.(1)

G.—Table showing the Average Daily Wages of Hewers in 1889, 1890, and 1891.

District.	October 1889.			October 1890.			April 1891.			Remarks.
	Lowest Average.	Highest Average.	General Average.	Lowest Average.	Highest Average.	General Average.	Lowest Average.	Highest Average.	General Average.	
Hainault — Couchant de Mons	3·50	5·24	3·89	4·43	5·97	4·75	4·00	5·85	4·37	The table for 1891 is compiled from the returns of the councils of industry and labour. No returns were made for Namur and the Centre of Hainault; but in the report on the coal industry of Namur for 1891 it is stated that wages were almost unchanged from 1890. Only two councils, those of Seraing and Liége, furnished returns for the Liége district; to this fact probably is due the increase in the lowest average in that province. In one case, where different returns were made by employers' and workmen's representatives, the arithmetic mean is taken as the average rate in that locality.
Hainault — Centre and West Charleroi.	3·67	4·97	4·38	4·50	6·56	5·82	—	—	—	
Hainault — Charleroi	3·69	4·49	4·11	5·00	6·95	5·88	4·74	5·90	5·34	
Namur	2·65	4·99	3·47	3·25	5·96	4·76	—	—	—	
Liége	2·19	5·52	4·18	2·70	6·47	5·10	5·36	5·50	5·43	

Since the above return was made there have been reductions of wages in some parts, especially in the Borinage district.(2) According to a report on May 25th, 1893, from Her Majesty's Vice-Consul at Ghent, there was much distress among the miners, and complaints of low wages were general in the Mons and Charleroi districts.(3) After the strike in May 1891, the miners' section of the Council of industry and labour at Liége fixed the daily wage of hewers (*abatteurs*) at 5.50 francs.

β. Wages, how calculated.

Four methods of calculating wages are mentioned by the Director-General of Mines: by the day, by the task, by the piece (*travail effectué*), and by contract. The first method is employed when the layers are irregular; the second when they are twisted and vary in productiveness. Payment by the piece is generally employed as being the fairest method. At the Mariemont and Bascoup collieries all the workmen connected with the machinery are organised in gangs, and undertake to perform all work and repairs for a fixed sum, generally based on the output, taking all risks. These contracts are signed by the Companies and the workmen, and last for a year or more. The result is stated to be equally satisfactory to both sides. In a letter of June 15th, 1891, the Director-General pointed out the regular fluctuations of wages according to the selling price of coal per ton, and strongly advocated the introduction of the sliding-scale, with certain necessary modifications.

γ. Deductions.

The above tables state the gross amount of average wages, from which deductions must be made for contributions to provident societies, the cost of powder, and other expenses connected with working the mines, which are borne by the miners.

(*d.*) Hours. *a.* Daily aver

H.—Table showing the Average Hours of Hewers from Bank to Bank in 1890.(4)

District.	Maximum.	Minimum.	General Average.	Remarks.
Hainault — Borinage	11·30	8·30	10·30	—
Hainault — Centre	12	9	10	10½ and 12 in two mines only; from 9 to 10 in all others.
Hainault — Charleroi	10·30	9·30	10	10 hours in all mines but two.
Namur	11	7½	10	10 hours in all mines but four.
Liége	11	5·30	8·48	—

In May 1891 the council of industry and labour of Liége fixed the hours for hewers at 7½ to 8. The hours at the Mariemont and Bascoup collieries were 10 for many years; in 1890 they were reduced to 9, and an attempt was made to reduce them to 8. In 1892 the councils of industry and labour stated that the hours of all other categories of workers, including women and children, varied from 8 to 12½ in Borinage, 9 to 12½ in Charleroi, 11 to 12½ in Namur, 7½ to 11 hours in Liége, and in the Centre the average was 10½. The actual time spent in work is reckoned as about four-fifths of the hours above-mentioned. The hours of all categories of workers above ground varied in 1892 from 11·45 to 14 in Borinage, 10 to 12 in Charleroi, 11 to 12 in Liége; in Namur and the Centre the averages were 12 and 11 hours respectively. In each case from 1 to 2 hours' rest is included. By the Royal decree of March 1893, the hours of women and girls under 21 and boys under 16 engaged in or about mines must not exceed 11, including at least 1½ hours' rest.(5) In 1889 M. Janson introduced a Bill for establishing a maximum of 10 hours in coal-mines, but it was rejected, and the hours worked by adults are not restricted by law in this or in any other industry.

δ. Night work.

In 1892 the hours of night work for all categories of workers were 9 to 12½ in Borinage, 10 in the Centre, 11 in Charleroi, 10 to 11 in Namur, and 9 in Liége. In most collieries boys under 16 and girls under 21 were only employed in very small numbers, except for cleaning the lamps (*service des lampisteries*) above ground, work generally performed by girls under 21, working 12 hours. The Royal decree of March 15th 1893, allows boys under 16 to work not more than 10 hours before 12 p.m., and women under 21 not more than 9 hours before 12 p.m., at the Mariemont collieries.(6)

γ. Overtime.

Complaints are made of the long hours worked by engine-men. An instance is quoted in "*La Réforme*"(7), where a fatal accident was due to the fact that an engine-driver had been at work 16 hours.

δ. Eight hours' day.

At the First International Miners' Congress held at Jolimont in 1889 a resolution for establishing an eight hours' day from bank to bank was carried unanimously, and at the Fourth Congress in Brussels (1893), the proposal for extending the resolution to all workers above and below ground was carried by 399,000 votes against 100,000. On the other hand, it is objected that putters (*hiercheurs*) must necessarily work longer hours than hewers (*ouvriers à veine*); consequently a reduction of the hours of putters to 10 reduces the hewers' actual labour to 6 or 7 hours. It is also stated that, owing to natural and other causes, the annual output per man is already far less in Belgium than in England, France, and Prussia, and that in the event of the hours being reduced to 8, Belgium would be crushed by foreign

(1) Chambre des Représentants. Rapport par M. Sabatier, pp. XXX., XXXI. "Salaires et Budgets ouvriers," pp. 82–207.
(2) *See* p. 16.
(3) "Labour Gazette," June 1893, p. 45.
(4) Statistique des mines, &c., 1891, p. 13.
(5) *See* p. 53.
(6) *See* p. 53.
(7) April 2nd, 1893.

competition. The following table showing the average daily production for the years 1889, 1890, and 1891, may be of use in this connection.(1)

I.—Table showing the Average Daily Production in Tons during the Years 1889, 1890, and 1891.

District.	1889.					1890.					1891.				
	Number of Days worked.	Underground.		Above ground.		Number of Days worked.	Underground.		Above ground.		Number of Days worked.	Underground.		Above ground.	
		Average per Hewer.	Per Worker of all Categories.	Average per Worker of all Categories.	General Average of all Workers above under ground.		Average per Hewer.	Per Worker of all Categories.	Average per worker of all Categories.	General Average of all Workers above under ground.		Average per Hewer.	Per Worker of all Categories.	Average per Worker of all Categories.	General Average of all Workers above under ground.
Borinage - -	299	2·50	0·66	2·52	0·52	294	2·39	0·61	2·53	0·49	286	2·36	0·60	2·33	0·48
Centre - -	302	3·02	0·89	2·51	0·66	300	3·42	0·85	2·37	0·62	294	3·45	0·83	2·48	0·62
Charleroi - -	289	3·81	0·92	2·34	0·66	287	3·70	0·91	2·42	0·66	276	3·59	0·89	2·25	0·64
Namur - -	287	3·12	0·90	2·26	0·65	288	2·63	0·76	2·17	0·56	282	2·73	0·83	2·18	0·59
Liége - -	297	3·72	0·82	2·89	0·64	293	3·76	0·79	2·78	0·61	288	3·59	0·76	2·61	0·58
General average -	295	3·35	0·82	2·55	0·62	293	3·23	0·78	2·51	0·59	286	3·16	0·76	2·40	0·58

(e.) Safety of employment and accidents.

Great improvements in ventilation and sanitation have been introduced of recent years. In spite of the fact that almost all mines now contain fire-damp, and that the working has been largely extended, it is stated that anæmia, chronic bronchitis, and other maladies from which miners formerly suffered scarcely exist at the present time. Until 1869, all miners except those who produced a doctor's certificate of weakness were obliged to descend and ascend by means of ladders; since that date cages have been universally employed. Ventilation on a large scale was introduced in 1858, supplying fresh air at the rate of 15 to 20 cubic metres a second. In 1891 the supply was 35 to 50 or more cubic metres a second. As a general rule, miners are now strong and healthy, although rather paler than workers in other occupations. Of recent years the number of those who reach the age of 65 or 70 has much increased. In 1886 a demand was first formulated for the establishment of a committee of inspection composed of working men, but no practical result has yet been attained.(2) The following table shows the number of accidents in coal mines during 1889, 1890, and 1891.(3)

J.—Table of Accidents in Coal Mines, showing the Numbers of Killed and Injured.(4)

District.	1889.							1890.							1891.						
	Number of Workers.	Underground.			Above ground.			Number of Workers.	Underground.			Above ground.			Number of Workers.	Underground.			Above ground.		
		Accidents.	Killed.	Injured.	Accidents.	Killed.	Injured.		Accidents.	Killed.	Injured.	Accidents.	Killed.	Injured.		Accidents.	Killed.	Injured.	Accidents.	Killed.	Injured.
Hainault - -	79,860	162	102	83	6	5	1	85,440	143	133	37	10	7	3	86,800	137	124	48	9	7	2
Namur - -	2,513	5	2	3	—	—	—	3,322	7	6	2	1	1	—	3,279	7	5	2	1	—	1
Liége - -	26,009	42	36	13	3	2	1	28,017	40	35	6	1	—	1	28,904	39	27	16	4	4	—
Total - -	108,382	209	140	99	9	7	2	116,779	190	174	45	12	8	4	118,983	183	156	66	14	11	3

K.—Comparative Statement of Accidents in Coal Mines during the period 1882–91.(5)

Years.	Belgium.		France.		Great Britain.		Prussia.	
	Number of Workpeople employed.	Number killed.	Number of Workpeople employed.	Number killed.	Number of Workpeople employed.	Number killed.	Number of Workpeople employed.	Number killed.
1882 - - -	103,701	214	104,995	153	503,987	1,126	172,397	587
1883 - - -	106,252	227	109,547	170	514,993	1,054	184,099	601
1884 - - -	105,582	236	106,323	169	520,376	942	190,707	567
1885 - - -	103,095	189	98,600	169	520,632	1,150	193,948	695
1886 - - -	100,282	133	99,386	131	519,970	953	192,080	490
1887 - - -	100,739	286	99,997	170	526,277	995	191,379	513
1888 - - -	103,477	181	102,070	184	534,945	888	198,963	544
1889 - - -	108,382	147	107,941	331	563,735	1,064	213,158	553
1890 - - -	116,779	182	107,259	308	613,233	1,160	234,572	618
1891 - - -	118,983	167	128,757	218	648,450	979	253,035	731
Average - -	106,727·2	196·2	107,690·2	200·3	546,653·8	1,031·1	202,433·8	589·9
Proportion per 10,000 workpeople -	10,000	18·38	10,000	18·60	10,000	18·86	10,000	29·14

(1) Statistique des mines, &c., 1890, p. 10; 1891, p. 10; 1892, p. 6.
(2) "Les Chevaliers du Travail," I., Nos. 1, 21.
(3) Statistique des mines, &c., 1890, p. 33; 1891, p. 66; 1892, p. 32.
(4) The statistics given include only workers whose injuries occasioned death, or prevented them from again following their occupation.
(5) Statistique des mines, &c, 1892, p. 34.

It will be seen from the above statements that Belgium compares favourably with other mining countries, so far as concerns the proportion of deaths due to accident, and that whereas a far larger number of workers are employed now than formerly, the number of accidents has much decreased. This result may be attributed to the efforts of employers to ensure safety for their workmen, to the extension of technical instruction, and to the scientific and other improvements recently introduced. There are a number of private and other provident societies[1] which assist the victims of accidents in mines.

(*f.*) Material condition of miners.

The material condition of miners has greatly improved of recent years. Their houses are infinitely superior to those of the labouring classes in most towns, and they often have small gardens attached, where they can grow vegetables for the use of their household. In many parts, however, especially in the Borinage district, their condition is still very bad, as compared with miners in England and France.[2]

Quarries) Number of quarries worked.

The quarrying districts of Belgium are situated in the provinces of Brabant, Hainault, Limburg, Liége, Namur, and Luxemburg. In 1891 the number of quarries worked was 1,666, in 586 of which the work was carried on underground, while in 1,291 the work was in the open air. 1,701 quarries were worked in 1890, of which 1,413 were in the open air, and 547 underground, and in 1889 the total number was 1,812. In 1891 624 steam-engines of a total horse power of 11,051 were employed. The principal varieties of underground quarries are those of slate in Luxemburg and Namur, plastic fire-proof clay in Andenne, Hautrage, and other localities, marl and phosphate of lime in Mons and Hesbaye, spar in Fleurus, and the white stone quarries of Brabant. Blue stone and porphyry for paving are worked in open quarries. In 1891 the value of the total production was 37,818,000 francs, as compared with 39,280,000 francs and 36,537,000 francs in 1890 and 1889 respectively. The decrease since 1890 was principally in plastic clay and phosphate of lime; in lime, paving-stones, slate, flint, and heavy spar, the production had slightly increased.

(*b.*) Number of workpeople.

The total number of workers employed in 1891 was 25,717, of whom 4,429 worked underground; in 1890 and 1889 the totals were respectively 31,681 and 30,292. Slate, phosphate of lime, and white stone are the only underground quarries where a proportionately large number of workers are also employed above ground. The following table shows the number of the various categories of workers above and below ground in and about subterranean quarries in 1891.[3]

I.—Table showing Number of Workers in 1891.

		Hainault and Brabant.	Namur and Luxemberg.	Liége.	The whole Kingdom.
		Underground.			
Men and Boys.	Age over 16	601	1,025	503	2,129
	„ 14 to 16	76	36	288	400
	„ 12 to 14	—	5	6	11
Women and Girls.	„ over 21	3	—	16	19
	„ 16 to 21	—	1	23	24
	„ 12 to 16	—	—	22	22
		680	1,067	858	2,605
		Above ground.			
Men and Boys.	Age over 16	489	616	74	1,179
	„ 14 to 16	102	80	11	193
	„ 12 to 14	10	37	2	49
Women and Girls.	„ over 21	11	—	133	144
	„ 16 to 21	13	—	179	192
	„ 14 to 16	1	—	66	67
		626	733	465	1,824
		1,306	1,800	1,323	4,429

(1) *See* p. 38.
(2) Sabatier. "Travail dans les Mines et Creation d'une Direction générale du Travail," pp. 20, 21, 44, 53. Conseil supérieur du Travail. Première session, 1892, A., pp. 109-34; B., pp. 57-63. Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," I., pp. 180-92. Annuaire statistique de la Belgique, 1892, p. 285. Bollaert. "Les Institutions ouvrières de Mariemont et de Bascoup," p. 29. Weiler. "L'Esprit des Institutions ouvrières de Mariemont," p. 14.
(3) Statistique des mines, minières, carrières, &c., 1892, p. 19.

The only statistics that have been obtained respecting the number of workers in open quarries are those for Hainault and South Brabant:—(4)

Men and boys.	
Age over 16	11,380
„ 14 to 16	1,210
„ 12 to 14	59
Women and girls.	
Age over 21	54
„ 16 to 21	65
„ 12 to 16	12
Total	12,780

Women children.

It will be seen from the above table that, except in the province of Liége, the number of women, girls, and boys under 14 is very small. In the freestone quarries of Hainault women are not employed, and the boys under 16 who work there are apprenticed to stone-cutters, and are under the direction of their relations or an overman (*chef-ouvrier*). In the phosphate of lime quarries at La Hesbaye, women, girls, and boys are employed in larger numbers.

(*c.*) Wages.

No general statement is given of the wages of quarrymen, but in 1891 the councils of industry and labour of Jodoigne and Quenast stated respectively that the daily wages of miners averaged 1·75 and 2·75 francs. Stone-cutters at Jodoigne received 2·20 and miners' labourers 1·50 francs. The navvies and day labourers at Quenast gained 2·50 francs, and the wages of other classes of workmen over 21 years of age engaged upon the stone varied from 3·50 to 3·75 francs. In the Hainault stone quarries payment is by the task.

(*d.*) Hours.

The hours of labour in 1891 were stated by the council of industry and labour at Jodoigne to be uniformly 11 for stone-cutters, miners, and labourers. Stone-cutters, who form about half of the total number of workers employed at the quarries in Hainault, are not bound to fixed hours. Other categories of workers are employed from 8 to 12 hours a day, according to the season. A rest of 10 minutes is allowed in every three hours, and included in the time paid for. In the province of Liége the hours vary from 7 to 12. The hours of women and children are regulated by the Royal decree of 1893.(5) Night work is very exceptional, and is only employed when there is a great demand for certain stones to be cut, and in the case of adits (*machines d'exhaure*) and sawing machines, which are worked night and day by a double shift. Only men over 21 are employed at night. The same rule applies to Sunday work, which is always arranged so as to allow the workmen time for their religious duties. In some quarries men working by the task are forbidden to work on Sunday.

(*e.*) Accidents.

In 1891 10 accidents occurred in underground quarries, in which nine persons were killed and two seriously injured; 12 accidents, in which the number of killed and injured were respectively ten and three, occurred in 1890, and 4 in 1889, when one was killed and five injured.(6)

3. Ore mines.

(*a.*) Number of mines worked.

The provinces of Liége, Namur, Luxemburg, Limburg, and Hainault contain a considerable number of ore mines. The law of 1810 distinguishes between iron mines and iron quarries (*minières*), which include the alluvial iron ores obtained by open workings, or by small shafts which cannot be considered as regular workings. Only very few iron mines are conceded in Belgium; since the separation from Holland in 1830 no new concessions have been made.(7) In 1891 the number of mines worked under concession was seven, occupying 1,527 workers of all categories. It is not clear from the statistics whether the "*sièges d'exploitation*," nine of which are mentioned in mines worked under concession, and twenty in free mines, are shafts or distinct mines. The production of ores during 1891 was as follows:—(8)

	Tons.	Value in Francs.
Iron ore	202,204	1,172,700
Lead ore	70	8,100
Zinc ore	14,280	1,053,400
Pyrites	1,990	19,100
Manganese	18,498	254,600
		2,507,900

(4) Statistique des mines, minières, carrières, &c., 1892, p. 20.
(5) *See* p. 53.
(6) Statistique des mines, &c., 1890, pp. 22, 36; 1891, pp. 46, 65; 1892, pp. 19, 20. Conseil supérieur du Travail, A., pp. 97-9. "Salaires et Budgets ouvriers," pp. 62-3.
(7) Fourth Report of the Royal Commission on Mining Royalties p. 132.
(8) Statistique des mines, minières, &c., 1892, p. 16.

Thirty-nine machines of a total horse-power of 1,578 were employed in working the mines in 1891: the total expenses of mines worked under concession (*mines concédées*) amounted to 1,085,271 francs, and the profit was estimated at 416,629 francs, as compared with 604,000 and 680,000 francs in 1890 and 1889. The situation of the industry between 1881 and 1891 is shown in the following table:—(1)

Situation of the indnstry.

M.—TABLE showing Annual Production of Ore Mines in 1881–1891.

Year.	Iron Ore (including Manganese).		Lead Ore.		Zinc Ore.		Pyrites.		Total Value in Francs.	Number of Work-people employed.
	Tons.	Value in Francs.	Tons.	Value in Francs.	Tons.	Value in Francs.	Tons.	Value in Francs.		
1881 -	224,882	1,817,000	3,741	657,000	23,553	1,195,000	2,965	49,000	3,718,000	2,750
1882 -	209,212	1,593,000	2,918	486,000	20,443	707,000	2,555	21,000	2,807,000	2,312
1883 -	216,490	1,497,000	1,749	311,000	20,738	750,000	1,623	18,000	2,576,000	2,100
1884 -	176,755	1,280,000	1,796	257,000	27,606	1,014,000	2,243	35,000	2,586,000	1,926
1885 -	187,118	1,311,000	1,299	187,000	18,185	680,000	4,533	65,000	2,243,000	1,788
1886 -	153,378	955,000	1,292	194,000	19,042	762,000	3,209	31,000	1,942,000	1,498
1887 -	185,186	1,183,000	548	92,000	20,879	897,000	3,490	32,000	2,204,000	1,537
1888 -	213,327	1,402,000	414	44,000	24,537	1,161,000	3,916	41,000	2,648,000	1,682
1889 -	202,431	1,363,000	194	20,000	21,184	1,296,000	5,051	43,000	2,722,000	1,601
1890 -	186,546	1,259,000	150	16,000	15,410	1,200,000	2,980	28,000	2,503,000	1,427
1891 -	220,702	1,427,300	70	8,100	14,280	1,053,400	1,990	19,100	2,507,900	1,527

It will be seen from the above table that the production has much declined since 1881; this will be shown still more clearly by a comparison with the averages of the four previous decades. (2)

N.—TABLE showing Average Production in the Decades 1841–1890.

Period.	Iron Ore (including Manganese).		Lead Ore.		Zinc Ore.		Pyrites.		Total Value in Francs.	Number of Work-people employed.
	Tons.	Value in Francs.	Tons.	Value in Francs.	Tons.	Value in Francs.	Tons.	Value in Francs.		
1841–50	3,437,940	30,521,000	23,034	3,387,000	373,503	18,437,000	31,108	347,000	52,692,000	?
1851–63	7,118,869	68,886,000	72,815	9,880,000	770,887	37,522,000	200,090	3,487,000	119,783,000	9,988
1861–70	7,853,158	75,660,000	140,964	23,478,000	638,459	30,426,000	391,134	8,548,000	138,112,000	10,316
1871–80	4,271,831	39,956,000	108,433	17,436,000	454,548	27,219,000	274,480	6,547,000	91,158,000	5,607
1881–90	1,955,325	13,660,000	14,101	2,264,000	211,577	9,662,000	32,565	363,000	25,949,000	1,861

The most productive period was, therefore, the decade 1861–70, when on an average more than 10,300 workers were employed annually.

(*b.*) Number of workers.

The total number of workpeople employed in 1891 was 1,527, of whom 767 were engaged in mines worked under concession, and 760 in free ironworks (*exploitations libres de minerais de fer*). The various categories are shown in the following table:—(3)

O.—TABLE showing Number of Workers in 1891.

		Liége.	Namur.	Luxemburg.	Hainault.	Limburg.	The whole Kingdom.
		Underground.					
Men and Boys.	Age over 16 - - -	631	255	45	4	—	935
	„ 14 to 16 - -	5	—	—	—	—	5
	„ 12 to 14 - -	—	—	—	—	—	—
Women and Girls.	„ 21 - - -	—	—	—	—	—	—
	„ 16 to 21 - -	—	—	—	—	—	—
	„ 14 to 16 - -	—	—	—	—	—	—
		636	255	45	4	—	940
		Above ground.					
Men and Boys.	Age over 16 - - -	333	47	20	8	43	451
	„ 14 to 16 - -	47	15	—	—	—	62
	„ 12 to 14 - -	32	—	—	—	—	32
Women and Girls.	„ 21 - - -	22	—	—	—	—	22
	„ 16 to 21 - -	20	—	—	—	—	20
	„ 12 to 16 - -	—	—	—	—	—	—
		454	62	20	8	43	587
	Total - -	1,090	317	65	12	43	1,527

(1) Statistique des mines, minières, &c., 1891, p. 42; 1892, p. 16. (2) Id., 1891, p. 43. (3) Id., 1892, p. 16.

The above table shows that women and girls are not employed underground, and that boys under 16 are only present in very small numbers. Above ground, women and girls are as a rule only employed in workshops.

(c.) Wages. In 1891 the average annual wage of workers in and about mines was 774 francs, whereas in 1890 and 1889 it was 807 and 743 francs respectively.

(d.) Accidents. One accident occurred in 1891, in which one person was seriously injured; in 1890 no accident took place, and in 1889 three occurred, in which two persons were seriously injured and one killed.(1)

4. Metals. Under the head of metals are included blast furnaces, iron, steel, lead, and zinc works, as well as factories and workshops for the preparation of these and other metals, such as bronze, copper, silver, and gold. The information furnished by the councils of industry and labour to the higher council in 1892 concerned only iron, steel, and zinc. Statistics of the manufacture of lead and silver are also given by the Director-General of Mines. In 1891 2,033 machines of a total horse power of 56,186 were employed in working metals, 831 of 10,839 horse power in the manufacture of machines and tools, and 68 of 1,247 horse power in manufacturing arms.

Commerce The commercial situation of Belgium in 1891 was as follows:—(2)

——	Production.	Importation.	Exportation.	Home consumption
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Pig iron - -	648,126	183,542	17,002	814,666
Wrought iron -	497,380	19,342	289,985	226,737
Steel ingots - -	243,913	6,589	973	249,529
Wrought steel -	206,305	6,585	86,458	126,432
Unwrought zinc -	85,999	6,972	68,026	24,945
Unwrought lead -	12,698	34,093	24,073	22,718

(a.) Number of works and production. (1) Iron and steel. Charleroi and Liége are the principal centres of the iron industry; there are also a few important blast furnaces in Luxemburg. The extent of this industry is shown by the fact that in 1889 more than one-seventh of the total exports consisted of pig-iron, steel, machines, and other products. Although the amount of pig-iron imported exceeds what is exported, more than 55 per cent. of the articles manufactured in the rolling mills are sent abroad.

a. Pig-iron. In 1891 19 iron foundries and 28 blast furnaces were in activity, as compared with 19 foundries and 36 furnaces in 1890, and 18 foundries and 34 furnaces in 1889. The total output of pig-iron during the three years 1889–1891 was as follows:—

——	——	Value.	Average Value per Ton.
	Tons.	Frs.	Frs.
1889 - - -	832,226	44,491,000	53·46
1890 - - -	787,836	50,073,000	63·56
1891 - - -	684,126	38,318,000	56·01

In 1891 1,539,504 tons of ore were consumed for the production of pig-iron, of which 1,386,639 tons were imported.

Wrought iron. In the manufacture of wrought iron, 64 foundries and 911 furnaces of various kinds were in activity in 1891, in 1890 62 foundries and 949 furnaces were engaged, and in 1889 the numbers were 65 and 1,016 respectively. The following table shows the total production during 1889–1891:—

——	——	Value.	Average Value per Ton.
	Tons.	Frs.	Frs.
1889 - - -	577,204	80,819,000	140·02
1890 - - -	514,311	82,988,000	161·36
1891 - - -	497,380	72,602,000	145·99

546,337 tons of pig-iron were consumed in 1891, 51,526 of which came from abroad.

(1) Statistique des mines, minières, &c., 1890, pp. 19, 20, 36; 1891, pp. 41-5, 65; 1892, pp. 15, 16, 30.
(2) Id., 1892, p. 26.

The manufacture of steel by the Bessemer process was first introduced at the Cockerill works in 1864. Prior to its introduction 1,500 or 3,000 tons of puddled steel were produced annually. The Martin process was introduced at Sclessin in 1872, and the Thomas-Gilchrist 7 years later at Angleur.

In 1891 nine works and 54 furnaces were engaged in the manufacture of steel, 8 works were active in 1890 and in 1889, when the numbers of furnaces were respectively 62 and 53.

The production of wrought steel in 1889, 1890, and 1891 was as follows:—

——	——	Value.	Average Value per Ton.
	Tons.	Frs.	Frs.
1889 - - -	214,561	29,178,000	135·99
1890 - - -	201,817	31,278,000	154·98
1891 - - -	206,305	29,111,000	141·11

For the production of wrought steel in 1891, 244,041 tons of ingots were consumed, 3,167 of which were imported.

(2.) Zinc. The manufacture of zinc is confined to the province of Liége, with the exception of one comparatively unimportant foundry in Antwerp. 11 foundries and 307 furnaces were active in 1891; in 1890 and 1889 the numbers were respectively 10 foundries and 288 furnaces, and 10 foundries and 282 furnaces. The average number of crucibles in activity was 24,208 in 1891. 20,008 tons of Belgian, and 199,623 tons of foreign ore were consumed for the production of unwrought zinc in that year. The following statement shows the production in 1889, 1890, and 1891:—

a. Unwrought zinc.

——	——	Value.	Average Value per Ton.
	Tons.	Frs.	Frs.
1889 - - -	82,526	38,401,000	465·32
1890 - - -	82,701	46,212,000	558·79
1891 - - -	85,999	48,271,000	561·30

β. Rolled zinc. In 1891 the production of rolled zinc in Liége was 28,713 tons, valued at 17,510,150 francs, showing an increase of 1,903 tons on 1890.

(3.) Lead and silver. Lead and silver are manufactured only in the province of Liége, 3 foundries and 23 furnaces of various kinds were employed in 1891, the same number as in 1889 and 1890. 211 tons of Belgian, and 15,025 tons of foreign ore were employed in 1891.

The production from 1889–1891 was as follows:—

LEAD.

——	——	Value.	Average Value per Ton.
	Tons.	Frs.	Frs.
1889 - - -	9,412	2,923,000	310·56
1890 - - -	9,617	3,139,000	326·40
1891 - - -	12,698	3,895,000	306·74

SILVER.

——	——	Value.	Average Value per Unit.
	Kilogrammes.	Frs.	Frs.
1889 - - -	24,622	3,844,000	156·12
1890 - - -	33,083	5,806,000	175·50
1891 - - -	33,950	5,562,000	163·82

(4.) Summary of production. The above statements show that in the case of iron and steel the output, with the total value, has decreased since 1889, while the average value per ton is raised. Zinc, lead, and silver show an increase in each item, with the exception of the average value of lead per ton, which has fallen nearly 4 francs.(3)

(3) Statistique des mines, minières, &c., 1890, pp. 24-31; 1891, pp. 49-58. 1892, pp. 21-5.

(b.) Number of workpeople.

The total number of workpeople employed in the manufacture of iron, steel, zinc, lead, and silver in 1891 was 26,827. The following table shows the numbers employed in the various industries with the average daily wage. (1)

—	Pig Iron.	Wrought Iron.	Steel.	Zinc.	Lead and Silver.
Number of workers	2,827	16,227	3,124	4,103	546
Average daily wage in francs.	2·85	3·17	3·48	3·51	2·91

From returns furnished by some of the Hainault and Brabant iron-works, employing 10,743 workers, the following result has been obtained:—(2)

Men and boys.

Age over 16	9,075	10,489
,, 14 to 16	857	
,, 12 to 14	557	

Women and girls.

Age over 21	45	254.
,, 16 to 21	163	
,, 12 to 17	46	

Women and children.

In some other works only persons over 16 are employed. The proportion of women of every age employed in the iron industry in 1886 was 1 per cent. in the district of Charleroi, and 1·7 per cent at Seraing. No mention is made of married women in the Charleroi district, but at Seraing 6 per cent. of the total number were married. At certain works about 20 per cent of the total number of workers are women, who are engaged in working the trollies. The proportion of women and children is smaller in the zinc than in the iron industry. In 1886, out of a total of 2,505 workpeople, 128, or about 5 per cent., were persons who would now be protected by the law of 1889, 1·2 per cent of whom were girls or women, and 3·8 per cent. boys and youths.

(c.) Wages.

The returns of the councils of industry and labour in April 1891 are not sufficiently complete to allow of the compilation of a detailed statement of the average daily wages of metal-workers, but the following statistics have been gathered:—

Iron, steel, zinc, engineering, hardware.

Blast furnace heaters (*chauffeurs*) receive from 2·86 to 8·30 francs a day: rolling mill heaters from 3·42 to 7·12 francs. The various classes of founders (*fondeurs* and *mouleurs*) receive from 3·20 to 4·75 francs, engineers (*machinistes*) from 2·50 to 4·60 francs, fillers (*chargeurs*) from 2·68 to 4·50 francs, boiler-makers (*chaudronniers*) from 3 to 4·25 francs. Fitters (*ajusteurs*) vary from 3 to 4·50 francs; borers (*foreurs*) average from 2·70 to 4 francs. The wages of smiths (*forgerons*) vary between 4 and 4·95 francs, and the highest wage mentioned is attained by the forgers (*marteleurs*) at Seraing, who average 9 francs.

Bronze workers.

According to the statement of M. Vandervelde, the wages of bronze workers vary between 40 and 70 centimes, averaging 50 centimes an hour.

Jewellers.

Jewellers vary between 4 and 10 francs, setters (*sertisseurs*) between 5 and 10 francs, goldsmiths between 4 and 6, and polishers (women) between 3 and 4 francs.

(d.) Hours.

According to the returns of the councils of industry and labour in 1891, the hours of metal-workers vary from 9 to 12, broken by intervals of rest amounting in all to 1 or 1½ hours. The average is between 10 and 11 hours for workers of all categories. In blast furnaces and other metal works, where large furnaces must be kept going night and day, the workers are generally divided into two shifts, who work 12 hours night and day in alternate weeks. Night work is also customary in the gun trade. Where there are no large furnaces necessitating continuous fire, night work is exceptional, at least for persons protected by the law of December 13th, 1889. This statement applies also to Sunday labour, which is exceptional in all industries except those in which work is continuous night and day, as in blast furnaces. In rolling mills and in engineering it is only employed in case of repairs, and when absolutely necessary. Where it is employed the hours are usually arranged so as to allow the workers time for their religious duties. By the Royal decree of March 15th, 1893, boys under 16 and women and girls under 21 must have one clear day's rest each fortnight.(3) As a general rule, the sections of the councils did not consider the normal hours too long, except in the case of children under 14. The sections at Morlanwelz and Braine-le-Comte demanded a reduction to eight hours. It was also proposed that in blast-furnaces persons protected by the law of 1889 should be divided into three shifts of 8 hours, corresponding with the two shifts of 12 hours now worked by adults.

(e.) Accidents.

The number of accidents in metal-works in 1891 was 7, in which 6 persons were killed, and 4 injured; 13 accidents occurred in 1890, in which 9 were killed and 4 injured, and in 1889 there were 18 accidents in which the numbers of killed and injured were respectively 12 and 6. In 1891 6 explosions or other accidents from steam-engines occurred, in which 3 persons were killed and 4 injured.(4)

B.—Transport (including Docks) and Agriculture.

1. Transport. Wages and hours.

With the exception of dock labourers, very little information has been obtained respecting the industries connected with transport. The returns of the councils of industry and labour show that in April 1891 the wages of drivers, carriers, and carters at Brussels averaged 4 francs a day, drivers working 14 hours, carriers and carters 12. At Liége, tram drivers and conductors received 4 francs, working 14½ hours a day, watermen 3·50 francs for 12 hours' work.(5)

In March 1891 the maximum working time on the Belgian State railways for engine-drivers, stokers, and brakesmen was fixed at 15 hours, including stoppages, and half-an-hour before starting, and the same period after returning the engine to the shed. Men employed in the stations and sheds work 10 to 12 hours, ticket-collectors, porters, watchmen, permanent way men, pointsmen, and signalmen 12; where there is no regular night staff longer hours are worked, and extra pay is allowed in proportion to the extra work done. Mr. Gosselin states that a minimum rest of eight hours is given to drivers and stokers between two consecutive runs, and "it is hoped that the same regulation may shortly be "applied to the brakesmen."

Sunday work and holidays.

The railway department has as far as possible abolished the system of running goods trains on Sundays, and every effort is made to allow all railway servants a holiday on alternate Sundays. When employed on Sunday, they are always allowed two hours off duty to enable them to attend to their religious duties. In 1891 not more than 3 per cent. of the whole staff were employed on Sundays in the Government railway workshops in Brussels. Sunday labour has also been restricted in the post offices. The general post office (*administration centrale*) is closed on Sundays, and in those offices which are opened arrangements are made so that each man employed can attend to his religious duties. Post offices are generally closed on Sundays at noon at the latest; some of the chief offices at 1 p.m. The number of Sunday deliveries has been greatly reduced, and special postmen (*agents dominicaux*) have been enrolled to lighten the duties of the regular staff. In October 1891, 2,125 postmen were free on Sundays, 1,110, including sorters, postmen, and drivers, still had to work on Sundays, but had at least one day in every ten free.(6)

2. Docks.

(a.) Accommodation and traffic.

The principal maritime ports of Belgium are Antwerp, Ghent, and Ostend. At Antwerp, which is by far the most important, the total length of the docks and the quays along the Scheldt is 15,950 yards, and it is estimated that 220 large ships can be accommodated at one time in the docks and at the quays. There are, in addition, several dry docks for the repair of vessels. The railway stations at Antwerp are divided into two groups, one for the traffic of the river quays, and one for the dock quays. The total length of the railways round the docks is 24 miles, and 12 miles along the river quays. In 1891, according to the "*Annuaire statistique*," 4,464 vessels of an aggregate tonnage of 4,665,337 entered the port of Antwerp. The Consul-General estimates the number as 4,893, with a tonnage of 4,776,000. About 28,448 small vessels with an aggregate tonnage of 3,071,577 frequented the port during that year.

(b.) Number of workpeople.

The average number of workpeople employed daily at the docks is estimated at 30,000, including black-

(1) Annuaire statistique, 1892, pp. 286-7.
(2) Statistique des mines, &c., 1892, p. 26.

(3) *See* p. 53.
(4) Statistique des mines, minières, &c., 1890, pp. 24-36; 1891, pp. 48-65; 1892, pp. 26-30. Conseil superieur du Travail. Première session, 1892, A., pp. 59-62, 71-96, 141-2; B., pp. 37-40, 79-98. "Salaires et Budgets ouvriers en Belgique," pp. 30-207. Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," 1., pp. 35, 42-8, 177.
(5) "Salaires et Budgets ouvriers," pp. 60-1, 192-5.
(6) F.O. Miscellaneous Series, No. 214, pp. 35-8.

smiths, machinists, engine-drivers, and others, but the actual dock labourers number 27,000 or 28,000. The number of workers employed depends upon the number of ships in the port, and the amount of traffic. About 14,000 men are employed daily by the *Nations*,(1) and the town authorities engage about 250 in connection with the town and port. A considerable number of women work at the docks and adjacent warehouses.

(c.) Wages.

Workmen employed by the *Nations* receive from 2·40 to 4 francs a day, those employed by the *stukwerkers*(2) at Ghent, are paid from 2·50 to 3 francs. The *stukwerkers* themselves earn twice or three times as much. Porters at the wharves and railway stations at Antwerp are paid from 12·5 centimes to 4 francs a sack, according to distance: thus they earn from 5 to 7 francs a day. The town authorities pay monthly wages as follows:—

	Frs.	Frs.
Lock-keepers and carpenters -	87·5	to 137·5
Head mechanical engineers -	200	„ 287·5
Machinists - - -	132·5	„ 200
Enginemen - - -	100	„ 137·5
Stokers - - -	115	„ 130
Greasers - - -	112·5	„ 117·5
Superintending crane men -	150	„
Chief „ „ -	100	„ 125
Crane drivers - - -	82·5	„ 125
Boilermakers - - -	111·2	„
Foremen of workshops -	125	„ 187·5

Overtime, Sundays and holidays.

Casual labourers paid by the hour vary from 30 centimes to 1·75 francs. Women receive from 1 to 1·50 francs a day. Overtime is paid at the rate of 50 centimes an hour. Work on Sundays and holidays is paid at the same rate as on week days, but the hours are shorter. No labourer may receive less than half a day's wages.

Mode of payment.

Stevedores usually pay their men daily in a neighbouring inn, all payments are made in cash, and no deductions are allowed on any pretext. The truck system is unknown in Antwerp, but an attempt is being made to compel employers to pay the men in an office.

(d.) Hours.

The usual hours of dock labourers are 10 in the summer and 8 in the winter, but they are not restricted in any way: the men frequently work 36 hours consecutively, and then remain idle for several days. On Sundays and holidays one hour less is worked than on ordinary days. Labourers can always be obtained without difficulty on Sundays and holidays.

(e.) Foreign labour.

Only a very small number of foreigners are employed at the docks, and, as these are chiefly Dutchmen, they are not molested.

(f.) Safety of employment: inspection, sanitation.

The whole of the machinery in use at the docks and quays is the property of the town authorities, and is carefully inspected at frequent intervals. In 1892 no accident had occurred through the breaking of machinery for many years. Stevedores' workmen pay 1 per cent. of their daily wage to a fund from which, in case of accidents, they are allowed compensation equal to half their daily earnings, for not more than six months. The sanitary condition of the sheds is stated to be excellent. Rags, which are exported from Antwerp, are rarely allowed to be deposited in sheds before shipping.(3)

3. Agriculture. (a.) Situation of industry and number of workers.

No information with regard to the conditions of agricultural labour has been obtained of more recent date than the investigations of the Labour Commission in 1886. At that time agriculture, in common with most industries in the country, was undergoing a severe crisis. According to the statements of the majority of the witnesses, this crisis pressed more heavily on the tenant farmers than on the workmen they employed, but a large number of men could not obtain work in the country, and were obliged to migrate to the towns. The principal causes of the agricultural crisis were stated to be "bad times" and the extensive importation of cattle, especially from Holland. Many witnesses complained that foreign stock, corn and other produce, were brought into Belgium free of duty, whereas Belgian exports were heavily taxed before they were admitted into other countries. As a remedy to the under-selling thus caused, most of the witnesses demanded that an import duty should be levied on all foreign produce. (4) Agricultural statistics are at present collected by the Government only once in every ten years, and the most recent which have as yet been published are those for the year 1880. At that date the total number of men and women engaged in agriculture throughout the kingdom was 1,199,319, or 21·77 per cent. of the whole population of the country. 44·02 per cent. of the persons employed were women.(5)

P.—Table showing Average Daily Wages of Agricultural Labourers in 1880. (6)

(b.) Wages and hours.

Province.	Without Food.		With Food.	
	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.
	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.
Antwerp - -	1·50	1·	1·	·60
Brabant - -	1·74	1·09	1·03	·67
West Flanders -	1·83	1·16	·98	·64
East Flanders -	1·65	1·07	·83	·53
Hainault - -	2·41	1·24	1·37	·74
Liége - - -	2·46	1·48	1·52	·87
Limburg - -	1·62	1·11	·88	·55
Luxemburg - -	2·48	1·62	1·54	·92
Namur - -	2·67	1·44	1·70	·86

With regard to the above statements, it must be noted that the wages of agricultural labourers vary greatly according to the season. In harvest time, a good workman earns from 5 to 7 francs a day, working by the task, but in winter it is often difficult to obtain one franc a day. The method of payment differs in the case of the various classes of workers. Farm servants of both sexes (*domestiques* and *servantes*) are generally paid by the month, labourers (*journaliers*) by the day or by the piece.(7) The governor of West Flanders stated in 1886 that payment by the day or by contract was being abandoned for payment by the hour and by the piece. In his opinion, piece-work was the most satisfactory arrangement for all parties. Sheaves are generally bound by women, and an active woman could bind 1,600 in one day, at 25 centimes per 100 sheaves, thus earning 4 francs, whereas a woman working by the day at 1 franc or 1 franc 25 centimes would not bind more than 600 or 800.(8) As is shown by the above table, the truck system was extensively practised among agricultural labourers before the law of 1887 was passed regulating the payment of workmen's wages. A resolution for the establishment of a minimum wage for agricultural labourers was voted at the Congress of Marseilles in October 1892.(9) No statistics have been obtained with regard to the hours worked by agricultural labourers. According to the statements of a few witnesses before the Labour Commission, the hours of actual labour vary from 11 to 12 in summer, and are 10 in winter. During harvest time longer hours are worked. One witness demanded that the Sunday labour in connection with public works should be prohibited, as in Holland, on the ground that it encouraged intemperance.(10)

(c.) Other conditions.

It was stated by many witnesses, that, with the exception of horse-ploughs and steam threshing-machines, machinery was scarcely employed in this industry. The methods of culture in 1886 were similar to those in practice fifty or a hundred years ago. Generally speaking, the relations between employer and employed are more cordial in this than in any other industry, owing, doubtless, to the close intercourse which usually exists between them. One witness stated that in his district the relations were excellent. The men were always engaged for a year, and if they did not remain until their contract expired, they were blamed by their fellow workmen. Some, he stated, spent their whole lives in the same employment. The material condition of agricultural labourers, when in regular employment, compares very favourably with that of persons engaged in industrial production.*

(1) *See* p. 9.
(2) *See* p. 9.
(3) Report on docks and quays at Antwerp, by H.M. Consul-General. Van den Boyaut. Comité de patronage des Habitations ouvrières. Rapport, pp. 255–60. Vandervelde, "Les Associations professionnelles," I., p. 9.
(4) Commission du Travail, V., pp. 11, 24, 35, 133.
(5) Annuaire statistique, 1892, p. 246.
(6) Id., p. 247.
(7) Commission du Travail, V., pp. 17, 69, 72.
(8) Id., I., p. 187.
(9) "Les Chevaliers du Travail," I., No. 16.
(10) Commission du Travail, V., pp. 18, 97, 142.

Their dwellings were stated to be generally satisfactory from a hygienic point of view, and in some localities most of the labourers lived in their own houses. With the exception of glass-workers, agricultural labourers are the only class of Belgians who emigrate to any extent. Since the Franco-German war they have emigrated to the United States, and it was stated that the majority of them have been successful. They generally keep up their connection with their native country, and some even return to choose a Belgian wife.(1)

C.—Building, Glass, Printing, Textile, and other Trades.

(a.) Locality and position of industries; competition. α. Building and kindred trades.

The marble industry is principally concentrated in Brussels, where about 300 workers are engaged. This industry is much affected by the competition of the provinces and of piece-workers (*ouvriers à façon*).

β. Cigar trade.

Until quite recently the cigar industry was entirely confined to Brussels, Ghent, and Antwerp, but since the introduction of machinery a considerable part of the industry has been transferred to towns of secondary importance, such as Turnhout, Grammont, and Saint Nicholas.

γ. Clothing trades.

Brussels is the centre of the glove and hat-making industries. The manufacture of felt hats was introduced at Lokeren about 1790 by some workers from France. Thence it soon spread to Bruges, Saint Nicholas, and Brussels. The introduction of machines, especially since 1885, has had a considerable effect on the number of workers and the rate of wages.

δ. Glass trade.

One of the most important industries in Belgium is glass-making, for which a number of works are established in the provinces of Hainault, Namur, and Liége, but principally in the district of Charleroi. In spite of the important development which it has attained of recent years, it has preserved certain characteristics of small industries. As a general rule, the glass-workers initiate their own children into the various processes, which are thus handed down from father to son. The manufacture of sheet and moulded glass (*glace* and *verre coulé*) has had a disastrous effect on the window-glass industry (*verre à vitre*) since 1865. Before that period not more than 600,000 square metres of sheet glass were manufactured throughout Belgium, in 1888 the production exceeded 2,000,000, without including the production of moulded glass (*verre coulé*). The competition of the United States has also caused many modifications to be made in the method of production, in order to reduce the cost price as far as possible. Many complaints are made that the measure used in blowing glass is constantly increased, thus causing an indirect reduction of wages, and increased production. In consequence, a large number of glass-workers have emigrated of recent years.(2)

ε. Match trade.

At the present time (September, 1893), great distress prevails among the lucifer match makers at Grammont, owing, it is stated, to German competition. A letter recently published in the newspapers demanded an increased import duty on German matches, and the establishment of a minimum wage for the various branches of the industry.(3)

ζ. Printing trade.

In the lithographic printing trade, according to M. Vandervelde, the most formidable competition is that of the "layers on" (*margeurs*), who frequently become machine managers. To check this competition, women are employed in many offices.(4) In typographic printing, on the other hand, it is stated that through the employment of women and girls apprentices are unable to learn the management of the machines, and that the number of good machine managers in Belgium has become so small that in certain cases workmen have been imported from France and England.(5)

η. Textile trades.

The cotton, flax, and linen industries are principally centralised at Ghent, but since the reduction of the import duties on cotton in 1884 a number of factories have been established in the provinces. The competition of these factories has been a source of loss to the Ghent industry. For some time past, the introduction of the four-loom system has been a source of difference between the weavers and their employers. The demands of the operatives have now been partially accepted by one of the largest companies in the town. The chief demands of the workmen are that no weaver shall be dismissed on account of the new system, and that no old weaver, who continues to work two looms, shall have his wages reduced.(6) Verviers is the headquarters of the woollen industry, which is practically confined to the Vesdre Valley. At Verviers alone, there are 75 carding mills, employing about 10,000 workpeople, and annually producing 15,000,000 kilogrammes of yarn, valued approximately at 70,000,000 francs. There are also at Verviers 8 wool-combing mills, which produce about 3,000,000 kilogrammes, of an estimated value of 20,000,000 francs.

(b.) Number of works; production.

The only statistics obtained respecting the total number of works and the production, in any of the industries classed in this group, are those for the glass industry (*verre à vitre*), which are included in the reports of the Director-General of Mines. 53 works were active in 1891, containing 614 furnaces and 77 mills. In that year, 133 steam engines were employed, of a total horse-power of 10,055. The total value of the production was 55,374,000 francs, showing a diminution of 2,966,000 francs on 1890. The state of the industry during the last four decades was as follows :—(7)

Period.	Average Number of Workpeople.	Total Value of Production.
		Frs.
1851–60	4,691	127,566,000
1861–70	7,280	207,454,000
1871–80	10,855	391,090,000
1881–90	15,939	487,155,000

(c.) Number of workpeople.

In 1891 the total number of workers in the glass industry was 20,257, being 407 less than in the previous year.

Women and children.

The Report of M. Castelein in 1892 shows that a considerable number of children are employed by bakers. In the building and kindred industries, the employment of women and children is only exceptional; in the cigar and clothing trades, they are engaged in large numbers. The actual manufacture of glass is exclusively confined to men, but a number of women and children are employed in subordinate work. About 437 boys under 14, and 540 between 14 and 16 years of age are employed in the principal glass works for the manufacture of hollow, sheet, and fireproof glass (*gobleterie, glaces et produits réfractaires*): the Val-Saint-Lambert Company alone employs 597 boys between 12 and 16. In the window-glass industry (*verre à vitre*), women and about 2,000 children are employed. Considerable numbers of women and children are engaged in the printing industry. Complaints are made of the employment of women and girls as "layers on" (*margeuses*). In a few offices, women are also employed as compositors. A large number of women and children are employed in the textile industries.

(d.) Wages. (1.) Daily average. α. Building and kindred trades.

According to the returns of the councils of industry and labour in 1891, the average wages in the building and kindred trades at Brussels are as follows :—Stone-carvers, 6·50 francs a day; masons, 3·75; stone-cutters and paviors, 4; builders' labourers, 2·50; carpenters and joiners, 3·60 and 3·80; wood carvers, 6; painters and decorators, 3·50 to 6 francs, according to the kind of work done. At Liége, marble-workers and polishers gain 4 and 3·60 francs respectively; masons 4, and builders' labourers, 3; carpenters and joiners, 4 and 3·75; cabinet-makers, 3 to 3·50 francs; painters and decorators, 38 to 50 centimes an hour. M. Vandervelde states that the wages of marble-workers are far lower in the provinces, ranging from 2·60 to 2·75 francs.

β. Cigar-makers.

Cigar-makers at Liége earn from 2·50 to 3·75 francs. M. Vandervelde states that the average weekly wage of the women employed in this industry at Liége is 10·50 francs, while in Brussels from 15 to 20 francs are paid.

γ. Clothing trades.

Before the extension of provincial competition, workers by hand earned considerably over 20 francs a week. The average wage of skin-dressers, the least skilled workers in the glove industry, is 3 to 3·50 francs; cutters average 5·30 francs. Women receive 1·80 francs. Felt-hat makers earn 2·50 to 6 francs; women 2 francs. Silk-hat makers, 2 to 5; women, 1·50 francs; straw-hat makers, 3·75 to 5; women, 3 francs. Shoemakers at Liége average 2·75 francs; tailors, 5 francs; at Brussels, tailors receive 3·50 to 4·50 francs.

δ. Glass workers.

In the glass trade the averages are as follows :—Blowers, 14·50 to 17·50 francs; spreaders, 7·50 to 8·50; cutters, 3·75 to 5·14; engravers, 4·20.

ε. Printing and book trades.

The following table shows the average wages of printers and bookbinders :—

(1) Commission du travail, V., pp. 39, 74, 246-7.
(2) "Les Chevaliers du Travail," I., Nos. 8, 11, 15, 21.
(3) "Labour Gazette." August, 1893, p. 93.; September, p. 118.
(4) "Les Associations professionnelles," I., p. 106.
(5) Conseil supérieur du Travail. 1re session, A., p. 11.
(6) "Labour Gazette." September, 1893, p. 118.
(7) Statistique des mines, &c., 1891, p. 61.

	Typographic			Lithographic			
	Compositors.	Machine Managers.	Type Founders.	Engravers and Designers.	Machine Managers.	Transferrers.	Book Binders.
	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.
Brussels	5·50 (stab) 3–3·50 (piece)	5·50–6·50	3·50–6	5·15	6	5·50	3·50
Ghent	2·50–3	3–6	—	—	2·50–7	2·50–5·50	2·25–4·50
Liége	3·75	5	—	—	5·50	5	2·50–3·50

Newspaper compositors at Brussels earn 5·50 francs a day; makers-up, 6; pocket-book makers, 4·50. Lithographic engravers and designers are, as a rule, only employed for about 7 months in the year. The daily average of piece-workers varies greatly. It is stated that the men frequently work only 3 or 4 hours a day, owing to delays caused by the distribution of copy, and other difficulties. In the textile industries, the average wages are as follows:— ζ. Textile trades.

Cotton (Ghent).

Spinners.	Carders.	Twisters.	Warpers.	Winders.	Weavers.
4·33	*2·25	4·65 & *2·35	*2·75	*2·60	2·85

Flax and Linen.

	Combers.	Carders.	Spinners.	Warpers.	Winders.	Weavers.
Courtrai	—	—	—	2·90	4	4
Ghent	2·28–2·76 2·16–2·76	*1·68–1·92 *1·98	*1·32–1·56 *1·80–2·10	3·34 & *3	*2·50	2·65
Liége	3·10	3·30	*1·30	—	—	—

Wool.

	Sorters.	Combers.	Spinners.	Warpers.	Winders.	Weavers.
Brussels	4·10	3 & *2	3·60 & *1·85	3·45	*1·75	3 & *2·60
Liége	—	—	5	2·70	—	2·75

In the above table wages earned by women are denoted by.* In the woollen industry at Liége, weavers of both sexes are paid alike. The amount given for cotton weavers is the average of all categories, including men, women, and apprentices. The first column of flax-spinners' wages at Ghent shows the workmen's statement, the second that of the employers.

(2.) How calculated. Information as to the mode of calculating wages in the various trades included in the third group is very incomplete. Payment by the piece is practised in some of the industries connected with building, and in some of the clothing trades, especially in the manufacture of ready-made clothes. In the glass industry (*verre à vitre*), all workers except the gatherers (*cueilleurs*) are paid by the piece. Printers are paid either by the day or by the piece; payment by the piece is employed in some of the textile industries. In 1886, the truck system was prevalent in the provinces of Liége and East Flanders, especially in the case of masons, carpenters, straw-plaiters, sail-makers, and weavers.(1)

(a.) Hours. a. Daily average. Bakers at Ghent work 12 hours a day, from 3 a.m. until noon, in private bakeries, according to the statement of the council of industry and labour. In the co-operative bakeries the work is continuous, and there are no fixed hours of rest. An eight hours' day has for some time been established in the co-operative bakery at Jolimont. At Brussels the average is 10 hours for all workers in building and connected trades; carpenters at Liége work 10 hours, joiners, cabinet-makers, and masons 11, and marble-workers of all categories 12 hours. Cigar-makers at Liége work 10 hours a day. Glove and hat-makers average 10 hours at Brussels, 12 in Flanders; tailors 10 and 11, and shoemakers 12 hours. The average hours of glass-workers are as follows in the different districts:—Blowers, 9 to 11 hours; spreaders, 12; cutters, 10 to 11 hours. Lace-makers work 10 hours a day. At Brussels, compositors by the piece, lithographic designers, newspaper compositors, and typefounders work 6, 7, 9, and 11 hours respectively; bookbinders at Ghent average 11 hours. The remaining workers in the printing industry, whose wages are stated above, average 10 hours. Cotton-spinners of all categories work from 11½ to 12 hours; warpers, winders, and weavers, 9, 10, and 11½ respectively. Linen-weavers average 10½ hours at Ghent, 12 at Courtrai; flax-spinners work 12 hours. In the woollen industry, the average is 10½ hours at Liége, and 11 hours in Brussels.

β. Overtime and night work. The councils of industry and labour at Brussels and Ghent stated in 1892 that small employers and independent workmen, in the building and kindred industries, obliged children in their employment, including their own children, to work 14 or 15 hours daily. In the clothing trade, children and young girls frequently worked from 15 to 18 hours consecutively, and on Sunday they were employed until late in the afternoon. In the co-operative bakeries (*brood-fabrieken*) at Ghent, work continues uninterruptedly day and night. The staff is divided into day and night shifts, each working 12 hours. Night work is very exceptional in the building and kindred industries; in the cigar trade it is unknown. Tailors and dressmakers, including children of both sexes under 14 years of age,

(1) "Salaires et Budgets ouvriers," pp. 30-207. "Les Associations professionnelles," I., *passim*. F.O. Miscellaneous Series, No. 214, p. 8.

are frequentiv obliged to work at night without any intervals of rest. Makers of under-linen, gloves, and hat-makers are never employed at night, shoemakers are rarely so employed. In the glass industry, especially in the making of window glass (*verre à vitre*), where the furnaces are in continous operation, night work is a necessity, the hours being the same as during the day. It is only exceptionally employed in the printing and bookbinding trades. As a rule, only compositors are concerned in cases when it is necessary. In the cotton, flax, and jute industries night work is unknown, or very rare; in the woollen industry a considerable number of workers are habitually engaged at night.

γ. Sunday work.

Workers in the co-operative bakeries at Ghent are employed on Sundays the same number of hours as on ordinary week days. In most cases, attention to their religious duties is impossible. It is stated that, as a general rule, the abolition of Sunday work in this industry would be beneficial. In the building and kindred industries, Sunday work is exceptional; when employed, the hours are so arranged as to permit of attention to religious duties. Sunday work is unknown in the cigar, glove, and hat making industries. Shoemakers, tailors, and dressmakers frequently work on Sundays, makers of under-linen do so only exceptionally; in the glass industry it is the general rule, as the furnaces are kept up night and day. In the printing and book trades, Sunday work is rare, except in the case of papers issued every day in the week. In some offices this difficulty is overcome by printing the Sunday number late on Saturday evening. The returns for the textile industries show that very little work is performed on Sundays. In June 1893, the operatives in the clothing establishments at Ghent united in petitioning the employers to close at noon on Sundays and public holidays, and a league was formed at Morlanwelz to induce the large manufacturers in the Centre of Hainault to agree to Sunday closing. At Antwerp, the hat and cap establishments decided to close at 2 p.m. on Sundays, and in August it was stated that the employés in various other industries were agitating for early closing on Sunday.

(*f.*) Apprentices.

The printers' associations complain of the excessive number of apprentices at present employed; thus, at Liége there are about 250 for 175 men, and the report of the Ghent association for 1889 stated that the large number of printers out of work was due to the excessive employment of apprentices. Complaints are also made that apprentices in the carpentering and other wood-working industries are frequently not taught the trade, but are sent on errands for employers or workmen. In large establishments this abuse is due mainly to the system of piece-work, since the workmen cannot afford the loss of time that would be caused by teaching an apprentice.

(*g.*) Sweating system.

M. Vandervelde states that the sweating system is in vogue among employers of piece-workers (*ouvriers à façon*) in the marble industry. In the clothing trade also, according to the returns of the councils of industry and labour, the labour of women and children is frequently abused, and the sweating system is practised, especially in establishments for the manuture of ready-made clothes (*maisons de confections*).(1)

DIVISION III.—CERTAIN SPECIAL SUBJECTS.

A.—Co-operation and Profit-sharing.

(*a.*) History of co-operation in Belgium.

The beginning of the co-operative movement in Belgium was simultaneous with the formation in Paris, after the revolution of 1848, of a large number of productive co-operative societies. Contrary to the experience of most other countries, the earliest co-operative societies in Belgium were not distributive, but productive. A considerable number of tailors', shoemakers', and printers' co-operative societies were established in Brussels and Ghent, but these, like the Paris societies, were, with one exception, shortly afterwards dissolved. The first distributive societies were the co-operative bakeries established in 1854 at Ghent and Antwerp, but these also enjoyed only a brief existence. A certain number of societies for the purchase of stores for the winter were established a little later, chiefly among the members of friendly societies; in 1865 twelve of these societies were in existence, but, according to M. Bertrand, the number has since considerably diminished. Between 1864, when the first "people's bank" was instituted at Liége, and 1873, a large number of societies were established, mainly through the influence of the *Internationale*. The lack of recognition and protection by the law, as well as of proper organisation among the working classes, and in some cases the bad management and dishonesty on the part of the managers, brought about the dissolution, by 1873, of almost all these societies, with the exception of the various distributive societies established in 1869 at the Mariemont and Bascoup collieries. In 1867 M. Anspach, the burgomaster of Brussels, established cheap dining rooms (*restaurants économiques*) for working men, one of which still remains in Brussels. In 1871 M. Bara brought forward a Bill for the recognition of co-operative societies, which became law in 1873, and, with certain slight modifications introduced in 1886, still remains in force. In January 1878 there existed only 13 co-operative societies established in accordance with this law, and of these, 10 were people's banks. Eight more were instituted between that date and January 1880, but the co-operative movement has spread rapidly since 1885. This increase is ascribed by M. Bertrand mainly to the influence of the Labour Party (*Parti ouvrier*), established in that year, and also to the institution, since January 1882, of "people's drug stores," as well as to the large number of co-operative societies formed by Government employés since 1885. Between this date and the end of 1892, 303 societies were established, whereas only 45 were instituted between 1873 and 1884.

Law of 1873.

Federation.

At present, no general federation of co-operative societies has been formed in Belgium. In 1869 a federation of people's banks was established, which holds an annual congress, and in 1887 the question of federation was debated at a congress of delegates from co-operative distributive societies, convoked by the "*Vooruit*," and a provisional committee was appointed. It was found necessary to adopt the form of a joint-stock company, as the law of 1873 does not mention the possibility of forming any such federation. Copies of the proposed rules were circulated among the co-operative societies, but only a few of the smallest expressed a wish to join, and the scheme proved a failure. At the annual congress of the Labour Party in 1890 the question was again introduced, and a few days later a federal council was established at Ghent. About the same time, the co-operative societies of Government employés instituted a federation, to which thirteen societies of employés are now (1893) affiliated. A local federation of co-operative societies was established at Liége about 1891.

Belgian co-operative societies have many peculiar difficulties to contend with, owing to the opposition of tradesmen and others who consider them a source of danger to existing institutions. In 1891 a law was passed, obliging co-operative societies to pay a licence in proportion to the scale of their business. This law especially affects the large bakeries, such as the *Vooruit* at Ghent, which pays 6,000 francs a year more than before the law was passed.

Law of 1891.

(*b.*) Position and character of co-operative societies.

By the law of 1873, co-operative societies acquire legal recognition, the freedom of the city, the right to possess real property, and exemption from stamp and registration duties for all documents and publications. Unless otherwise determined by their constitution, the societies have a duration not exceeding 10 years, and are managed by a director and a committee of three, who need not be members of the society. The number of members and the rate of contributions are variable; no shares are transferable. In most cases, the share paid by a new member is only 1 franc, which is deducted from the first profits realised after the member's entry. Each member remains personally liable, for five years after his resignation or exclusion, for all engagements contracted by the society during the year in which he withdrew. With the exception of the societies of Government employés, the co-operative societies are generally affiliated to the Labour Party, and spend a considerable portion of their income on socialist propaganda.(2)

1. Productive societies.

Four kinds of co-operative productive societies are mentioned by M. Bertrand. In those of the first class, only members are employed, the second employ work-

(1) "Labour Gazette," 1893, July, p. 69; August, p. 93. Conseil supérieur du Travail, 1re session, A., pp. 1-58, 63-70, 101-8, 135-40; B., pp. 1-36, 45-56, 65-78, 99. Statistique des mines, &c. 1891, p. 60; 1892, p. 27. Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," I., pp. . "Les Chevaliers du Travail," L., No. 14.

(2) Bertrand. "La Co-opération," pp. 7-40, 138-48.

men and pay them wages, the third allow such workmen, although not members, to receive a share of the profits, and the fourth variety includes those formed by workmen's associations for the benefit of all their members. The Typographic Alliance, established in 1849, belongs to the second class. In 1887 this society numbered only 31 members.* Between 1867 and 1874 several societies of marble-workers, printers, pocket-book makers, skin-dressers and softeners were established at Brussels, but were all dissolved after a short time. Within the last ten years, in addition to the co-operative society of the newspaper "*Le Peuple*," societies of printers at Ixelles, tailors at Ghent, and confectioners at Brussels have been established; the last of these is developing considerably. Workshops for the unemployed (*ateliers de chômage*) have been instituted by several workmen's societies. In these workshops the members are employed for the whole or part of each day until they obtain work, and so actually earn part or even the whole of the benefit allowed them by their association.

Since the law of 1873 was passed, most of the *Nations* (1) at Antwerp have made their rules conform to those of co-operative societies, but, like the society for sugar refining at Laeken, they have nothing in common with co-operation beyond the name.(2)

2. Production and distribution combined.

The co-operative bakeries, which sell bread of their own manufacture, belong at once to the two classes of productive and distributive societies. These bakeries are very numerous, and exist in all the large towns. The establishment of the "*Vooruit*" at Ghent and the "*Maison du Peuple*" at Brussels, was followed in 1884 by a bakery and mill worked by machinery at Verviers. Bakeries were instituted in 1885 at Cuesmes, Jemappes, Frameries, Pâturages, and Wasmes in Borinage, and the next year eight more were established in the same district. In 1887 a number of bakeries were formed in the district of Charleroi, and in other localities. The most important societies are those at Brussels, Antwerp, Ghent, Liége, Louvain, Charleroi, Namur, Verviers, La Louvière, and "*Le Progrès*" at Jolimont. In industrial centres such as Charleroi, Borinage, and the Centre of Hainault, the co-operative society began by selling flour and butter, but it was soon found that a co-operative bakery could produce bread far more cheaply than it could be produced by each family for their own consumption. With the exception of the co-operative society at Jolimont, where bread is sold at the lowest possible price, these societies have almost all adopted the system of the Pioneers of Rochdale, selling at the current trade prices, and dividing the profits realised at the end of a certain period, generally a year or six months. For the establishment of a co-operative bakery, a capital of 300 or 400 francs is sufficient, with a daily production of 150 loaves. The great society "*La Maison du Peuple*" at Brussels began under such conditions in 1882; it was legally established in 1888, and at the present time (1893) it numbers 10,000 members, and manufactures more than 100,000 loaves a week. It possesses real property, having a tool-store, a library, and other premises, worth in all several hundred thousand francs. The objects of the society are to establish and work bakeries, and, as the funds allow, to establish butchers' shops, restaurants, co-operative workshops, general provision shops, libraries, reading-rooms, and other institutions. Its duration is fixed at 30 years from July 1st, 1888. The minimum capital of the society is 16,000 francs, and its liability is limited to the amount of the assets. Each share is worth 10 francs, payable in four half-yearly instalments. Persons who wish to join the society must purchase a share and adhere to the programme of the Labour Party (*Parti ouvrier*), to which it is affiliated. Members who deal for one month elsewhere than at the society's establishments, or otherwise infringe the rules, may be excluded by the council of management and a majority of two-thirds at the general meeting. A member who has resigned or been excluded receives his share, and the dividends to which he is entitled, in bread or other goods sold by the society, except in special cases, when he may be paid in cash. General meetings are convoked quarterly by the council of management, which meets at least twice a month, and consists of members of all the sections. An executive committee, to carry out the decisions of the council and the sections, is composed of one member from each section. The sections consist of six members, five elected by the general meeting, and one by the men employed (*personnel*) in that branch; the bakery section is composed of nine members, two of whom represent the men employed. Deductions from the half-yearly dividends are made of 2½ per cent. for the staff, and of 25 per cent. for a reserve fund, at least half of which is employed for socialist propaganda, and the remainder is added to the funds. Each member pays 5 centimes a week to the provident fund, from which he is allowed, in case of sickness, seven loaves weekly for two years. In 1890 a medical aid society (*Service médico-pharmaceutique*) was established, which, for a weekly payment of 5 centimes for each person, provides members of the co-operative society and of the Brussels federation of the Labour Party with medical attendance and medicine gratis.

"Maison du Peuple," Brussels.

Constitution.

In 1892, the *Vooruit* numbered more than 5,000 members, and had established, in addition to the bakery, three drug stores, and shops for the sale of coal, clothes, haberdashery, tobacco, cigars, and colonial produce. A certain number of co-operative workshops —cigar-makers, shoemakers, and metal-workers—are connected with the society, and supply it with their manufactures. The library contained 5,000 volumes in 1886. The funds are employed in establishing friendly societies, especially in small towns, and in propagating socialist doctrines. An anti-socialist co-operative bakery, the "*Volksbelang*," was established at Ghent in 1887, and has had considerable success. (3)

"Vooruit," Ghent.

3. Distributive societies.

In Belgium, as in other countries, distributive co-operation is the form which has made the most progress, especially during recent years. A considerable number of societies for the preparation of food, for consumption on the premises or otherwise, have been established in large towns and industrial centres, such as Liége, Namur, and Brussels. The society "*Les Ateliers réunis*" at Brussels has instituted several "people's restaurants," where for 55 centimes members can purchase a dinner of soup, meat, bread, vegetables, beer, and coffee. Owing to the large capital required, from 15,000 to 20,000 francs, and the close supervision that is necessary, it has not yet been possible for workmen to establish societies of this kind without assistance. A few employers have formed stores (*économats*) for the use of their workmen, but, in consequence of the abuses to which such institutions have frequently given rise, (4) the men generally look upon them with distrust, and they have had but little success, unless they have been entirely given over to the men, and have become actual co-operative societies, as in the glass-works at Val-Saint-Lambert. In 1881 a certain number of affiliated friendly societies established a society for the supply of medicine and drugs to their members at reasonable prices. The two first drug stores were established in 1882, and in six years they had realised a profit of 125,000 francs, although they sold below the current prices. This sum was divided among the members of the friendly societies in the ratio of their purchases. At the present time (1893), the "people's drug stores" at Brussels possess eight laboratories, and the question of establishing more is under discussion. Drug stores have also been established by the co-operative societies at Antwerp, Liége, Mons, Verviers, the *Vooruit* at Ghent, the "*Progrès*" at Jolimont, and others. There are a very few instances of societies of tradesmen for the manufacture or purchase of certain articles. At Brussels, Ghent, Antwerp, and Liége there are bakers' societies of this species, but they are not legally recognised. Others that may be mentioned are the Fishmongers' Society and the Union to forward the Development of Trade and Industry, both at Brussels, the United Millers at Snoenkerke, and the Gas Finishers at Antwerp. The co-operative society of dealers in poultry, game, fruit, and vegetables at Brussels, which was reconstituted in 1891, numbers 39 members, each of whom contributes 500 francs to the funds. The profits are divided among the members, after a deduction of 5 per cent. for the reserve fund, and 7½ per cent. for the council of management.

Tradesmen's societies.

4. Lending societies. (a.) People's banks.

In 1864 the first "people's bank" was instituted at Liége, after the model of the German societies established on the initiative of Herr Schulze Delitzsch in 1859. These "people's banks" perform for their members all the functions of ordinary banks, discounting drafts, ad-

* This society has no connection with the Free Association of Typographic Printers.

(1) *See* p. 9.

(2) "La Co-opération," pp. 56-72.

(3) "La Co-opération," pp. 42-53. La Maison du Peuple. Rules. Service médico-pharmaceutique. Rules.

(4) *See* p. 15.

vancing money from the funds, lending on security, and opening credit accounts. By the law of 1873, the members' liability may be either limited or unlimited, but that of the St. Nicholas bank alone is unlimited. In the case of the other banks, the amount of liability varies from 200 to 5,000 francs. The rate of discount is 1 per cent. higher than that of the National Bank. These societies are authorised by their rules to act as savings banks, and to receive deposits from members and other persons. They are also empowered to borrow sums not exceeding the half of their funds, for which all the members are liable, to the amount of 4,000 francs a head.

At Liége. The duration of the bank at Liége, which is the oldest and the most important of all, is fixed at 30 years, dating from 1874, when it became legally recognised, but it may be dissolved previously, with the approval of two-thirds of the members. The minimum funds are 3,000 francs. Each new member must pay an entrance fee, and deposit a capital of 200 francs, which may be paid in monthly or weekly instalments. This sum remains the personal property of the member, but cannot be withdrawn while he remains in the society. The bank is directed by a council of management consisting of fifteen members, under the supervision of three commissioners and an executive committee, which is composed of the president, director, and treasurer of the council. The sums advanced to each member are determined by the council, according to the state of the funds, but they must not be less than 10 or over 4,000 francs, and are lent for a period not exceeding three months, except by permission of the council. The rate of interest varies from 3 to 6, but is usually 4 per cent., with an additional ½ per cent. for each month. In 1887 the Liége bank numbered 2,706 members belonging to 132 different professions, and that at Verviers 2,545 belonging to 111 professions. On June 30, 1892, the total number of members of "people's banks" amounted to 10,356, and the capital deposited exceeded 2,000,000 francs. The reserve fund amounted to 270,000 francs; the statement of accounts to 4,500,000 francs.

In 1869 a federation, which holds an annual congress, was established under the presidency of M. Léon d'Andrimont, the deputy for the district of Verviers. In 1884 a law was passed for the establishment of people's banks in agricultural districts, but no practical results have yet been attained.

Q.—TABLE showing the Situation of seventeen of the Banks in December 1891:—(1)

Name.	Date of Establishment.	Number of Members.	Business in 1889.	Dividends in 1891.
Liége	1864	2,394	12,864,409	3 p.c.
Huy	1865	712	1,058,748	5 and 4 p.c.
Verviers	1865	2,598	30,417,380	6 p.c.
Ghent	1866	1,264	31,717,070	7 p.c.
Namur	1869	674	9,482,634	4 p.c.
St. Nicholas	1869	305	1,081,918	6 p.c.
Antwerp	1873	464	31,072,982	6 p.c.
Dinant	1873	274	1,049,313	2 p.c.
Châtelet	1873	414	2,811,641	7 p.c.
Malines	1874	265	1,219,708	5 p.c.
Andenne	1874	392	4,666,767	5 p.c.
Termonde (dist.)	1875	85	814,963	3 p.c.
Alost	1886	68	1,565,627	5 p.c.
Goé	1888	85	291,817	5 p.c.
Antwerp (dist.)	1889	256	—	3 p.c.
Argenteau	1889	36	163,734	4 p.c.
Jumet	1890	70	—	3 p.c.
		10,356	130,278,711	

(*b.*) Credit societies. In addition to the people's banks, there are at present in Belgium seven loan associations (*unions du crédit*); those at Liége, Verviers, Charleroi, and Tournai are co-operative in form. A similar association at Antwerp was dissolved in 1889. The functions of these associations are identical with those of the people's banks.(2)

5. Building societies. In 1887, after several enquiries had been held into the condition of workmen's dwellings, an attempt was made to establish building societies in Belgium, but little could be done until the law of 1889 was passed, authorising the General Savings Bank (*Caisse générale d'épargne*) to advance a portion of its funds to public administrations, to individuals, or to societies established for the purpose of building workmen's houses.(3) This law permits the societies to be either joint-stock or co-operative in form. In 1890 the first building society was established at Brussels, and the next year another was founded at Louvain. This form of co-operation is therefore of too recent establishment in Belgium for its results to be estimated.

6. Insurance societies. The first co-operative insurance society in Belgium was the "*Urbaine belge*," instituted in 1888. The minimum capital of the society, which extends its operations to foreign countries, is fixed at 2,000,000 francs, divided into 4,000 shares of a nominal value of 500 francs; no member may take more than ten. On December 31st, 1892, the society numbered 485 members, who had subscribed for 2,513 shares of 500 francs. In 1892, the receipts were 1,100,000 francs, and 630,000 francs were paid as compensation. The total amount of compensation paid since the establishment of the society is 1,300,000 francs. The following table shows the condition of the society during the first four years after its establishment.(4)

(1) Annuaire statistique, 1892, p. 170; "La Co-opération," pp. 170–1.
(2) D'Andrimont. "La Co-opération ouvrière," pp. 66–94. "La Co-opération," pp. 47–8, 74–8.
(3) *See* p. 42.
(4) "La Co-opération," p. 106.

Year.	Receipts.	Revenue.	Dividends.
1888-9	245,214	40,000	8,138
1890	541,763	130,000	10,433
1891	806,079	190,000	15,173
1892	1,100,000	300,000	20,000

7. Agricultural societies.

Agricultural co-operative societies in Belgium date from 1885, when the first was established at Landen. Others exist at Perck, Tirlemont, Ghent, Marche, Genappe, Hasselt, Liége, Tongres, Namur, Grivegnée, Virginal, Jodoigne-Perwez, Cerexhe-Mélin, and Brée; the last of these was instituted in 1890. All these societies were founded by large landowners and farmers. With the exception of the two last mentioned, their object is to purchase and retail to members fodder, corn, and other articles. The co-operative dairy at Cerexhe-Mélin, established in 1889, is the earliest instance of an agricultural productive society in Belgium. At the end of the same year another co-operative dairy was instituted at Peuthy, with a minimum capital of 2,000 francs, divided into eighty shares of 25 francs. Twenty shares have been purchased by purveyors of milk, the remainder by other persons admitted to membership. Each member is paid according to the quality of the milk supplied by him, after a slight deduction has been made for the expenses of the dairy. The dairy at Brée, established in 1890, has now (1893) eleven members, all farmers, and works satisfactorily. (1)

(c.) Effects of co-operation.

The material and moral effects of co-operation are, according to M. Bertrand, enormous. Food and clothing can be bought at a reduction of 15 or 20 per cent., and in bakeries the manufacture is on such a large scale that bread can be supplied at 25 per cent. below the trade price. The co-operative bakeries have revolutionised the manufacture of bread in Belgium, by the employment of the newest kinds of ovens, and the introduction of kneading by machinery. The ordinary tradesmen are also obliged, by the competition of the co-operative societies, to lower their prices, as has been done by the bakers at Ghent and Brussels; consequently the general public, as well as the members, have gained by the establishment of the societies. By supplying good food and other necessaries at moderate prices, and in most cases admitting to membership none but persons of good character, the societies tend to raise the moral standard of the working classes, and to encourage habits of economy and temperance. Some of the largest societies, the *Vooruit* at Ghent, for instance, do not allow the sale of intoxicants on the premises. (2)

(d.) Profit-sharing.

The results of the system of profit-sharing established at the Mariemont and Bascoup collieries are stated to be equally satisfactory. With the exception of the collieries of M. Bourg at Bois-du-Luc, almost the only other instances of profit-sharing occur in the steel works of M. Boël at La Louvière, and in one jute-spinning establishment at Ghent. The system was introduced at M. Boël's works in 1888, and in 1891 the sum of 39,000 francs was divided amongst the workmen, about 550 in number. In 1892 the profit realised was considerably less. (3)

B.—Friendly Societies.

(a.) Early period. Trade benefit societies.

The earliest friendly societies in Belgium were the trade benefit societies (*mutualités professionelles*), which were formed towards the end of the eighteenth century. These were joint associations of employers and journeymen engaged in the same industry; at the beginning of this century they were very numerous, but they are now found only at Lierre, Turnhout, Ghent, Bruges, and a few other towns in Flanders. Most of the surviving "*Ambachten*," (4) which were originally associations of employers, adopted this form at the beginning of the present century, and now admit employers and workmen on equal terms. Other societies, which were originally composed only of journeymen, such as the carpenters' society at Bruges, "*Timmerliens Onderstand Maatschappij*," established in 1753, have admitted employers since the suppression of the guilds. Some of the later trade benefit societies have copied the constitution of these old associations. This is the case at Bruges, where there are three societies of tailors, of which one is the old "*Ambacht;*" another, originally a society of journeymen re-constituted in 1803, and the third, an offshoot of the latter society, established in 1870. All admit employers and journeymen without distinction. A similar society worthy of mention is the gold and silversmiths' and jewellers' society established at Brussels in 1830.

Change in the character of trade benefit societies.

All these old trade benefit societies were at first religious in character, and organised festivals on certain saints' days, as well as masses for deceased members. Of recent years they have lost their religious character, and tend to become less exclusive. Thus, in the woollen weavers' society at Bruges, only 25 members out of 200 are engaged in the industry; and the "*Servetenwevers*" society consists of persons employed in all kinds of industries, except that indicated by the name. In most cases, employers are not admitted; at Brussels there were 14 trade benefit societies in 1885, all of which had lost their religious character, and consisted exclusively of journeymen.

Law of 1851.

In 1851 a law was passed conferring legal recognition upon mutual aid societies, under certain conditions. A permanent commission was established by a Royal decree in the same year, and by a further decree of 1862 triennial meetings were instituted; the number of societies did not, however, increase as rapidly as had been anticipated. Several clauses in the law of 1851 caused much dissatisfaction, and in 1890 a Bill containing important modifications was introduced by the Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Public Works. This Bill, which is now (in 1893) before the Chamber of Representatives, includes a larger variety of associations in the list of those which may have legal recognition, and facilitates the means of securing it. The clause empowering the burgomaster to be present at meetings of the societies is suppressed. The arrangements as to dissolution and liquidation are henceforward to be controlled entirely by the members, whereas, by the law of 1851, all the funds of a society reverted in case of its dissolution to similar institutions, or to the Charity Organisation office (*bureau de bienfaisance*). It is also provided that temporary assistance granted to a member or to his family cannot be transferred or distrained. Many of these societies originally formed to provide insurance against sickness were re-organised as protective societies (*sociétés de maintien de prix* or *de resistance*), which, according to M. Vandervelde, were the origin of the trade associations of the present day. (5) Others have retained their benefit institutions, but have lost their professional character, and, like the more recent mutual aid societies, admit members of all trades, while employers are excluded. The proportion of members of mutual aid societies is greater in Bruges than in any other town in Belgium. In 1884, out of 46,000 inhabitants, 1,402 were affiliated to recognised, and 4,970 to unrecognised societies. Only about 1,000 women throughout the country were affiliated to friendly societies in 1886. The total number of recognised societies in Belgium in 1889 was 332, with a membership of 46,368. The following table shows the comparative numbers of trade and other friendly societies established before 1885:—

Bill of 1890.

(b.) Later period. Mutual aid societies.

Date of Establishment.	Trade Benefit Societies.	Other Societies.
Before 1800	10	0
1800 20	25	5
1820-40	22	33
1840-60	46	117
Total in 1860	103	155
Total in 1885	100	559

Federation.

In 1890 the Socialist Federation of Mutual Aid Societies was established, mainly on the initiative of the "*Bond Moyson.*" At Verviers there is a similar federation of mutual aid societies, which in 1891

(1) "La Co-opération," pp. 195-23.
(2) Bertrand. "La Co-opération," pp. 20-5. D'Andrimont. "La Co-opération ouvrière en Belgique," pp. 10-20. Id., "Le Crédit agricole." Commission du Travail, I., pp. 152, 373; II., B., p. 10; b., p. 40; C., p. 26; D., pp. 145, 193, 207; E., pp. 17, 59. "Sozialpolitisches Centralblatt," I., p. 298.
(3) Weiler. "L'Esprit des Institutions ouvrières de Mariemont," pp. 10-11. Bollaert. "Les Institutions ouvrières de Mariemont et de Bascoup," pp. 10-13. "Société libérale," Bulletins. Nos. 1, 4, 7, 13. Demeure. "Note sur les Chambres d'Explications de Mariemont et de Bascoup," p. 8. "La Réforme sociale," 1892, Jan. 1st, p. 82; March 1st, pp. 340-53.
(4) *See* p. 9.
(5) *See* p. 9.

numbered 2,500 members, but this is unconnected with the socialist movement, and is not affiliated to the Labour Party. In May 1892 the committee of inspection at Namur endeavoured to establish a federation of the mutual aid societies in Namur and the neighbourhood. In the district of Charleroi, the Catholic mutual aid societies were engaged in a similar attempt at the same time.(1)

1. Provident societies.

A number of societies for insurance against accidents and sickness (*caisses de prévoyance*) have been formed in Belgium, especially among miners. One of the most important of these societies is that in Couchant de Mons, to which 18 establishments were affiliated in October 1891. In that year the rules of the society were revised, and the accident and superannuation funds were divided into two distinct sections. The total amount of receipts of the miners' general societies (*caisses communes de prévoyance*), including contributions from employers and employed, and subsidies from the Government, was nearly 2,716,080 francs in 1891, and the expenses, including pensions and other assistance to members, amounted to 2,140,164 francs. The total receipts of the private societies in 1891 were 1,918,305 francs, of which 1,561,895 francs were paid by the employers, and the expenses amounted to 1,900,877 francs. Mention may also be made of the Belgian Brotherhood (*La Fraternelle belge*) established at Brussels in 1852, and recognised in 1877. In 1886 the "*Bond Moyson*" was established at Ghent by a congress of socialist mutual aid societies, for the purpose of securing medical attendance for their members, on the payment of two centimes a week. Two years later it was resolved at another congress to merge all the existing sick funds into one general fund under the direction of the *Bond Moyson*, which in 1890 numbered more than 10,000 members, and in that year was instrumental in establishing the Socialist Federation of Mutual Aid Societies. In addition to its functions as a friendly society, the *Bond Moyson* is engaged in socialist propaganda.(2)

2. Pension funds. State fund.

The State pension fund (*Caisse de retraite de l'Etat*) was in existence fourteen years before the law of 1865 was passed, instituting the general savings bank and pension fund. Its object was to secure a pension for workmen by the payment of small sums of not less than 1 franc. Each member can determine the age at which he prefers to enter upon the enjoyment of the pension, which in case of his death may be paid to his wife or family. The total number of members amounted to 13,300 in January 1892. A society was established at Ghent in 1888 with the sole object of inducing affiliation to the fund. In 1891 it numbered 332 members and paid to the fund the sum of 4,714 francs.

Private funds.

Some of the larger establishments have instituted private funds for their own workmen. One of the most generous is the Vieille-Montagne Company, which in 1892 purchased a farm, where superannuated workmen might live, on payment of a small part of the pension allotted to them. In several cases, as, for instance, in the printing office of M. Hoste at Ghent, and the tanning works of MM. Baugnies at Péruwelz, employers who had private funds for the benefit of their workmen have induced the latter to enter the State fund. The affiliation of M. Hoste's office took place in 1883, on the demand of the workmen, and since 1886 subscription to the fund has been obligatory for all workmen and apprentices. 126 workers in this office were affiliated to the fund in 1892. Each member determines the amount of pension which he desires to receive, and the age at which it shall commence. The deduction from the members' wages varies from 1 to 6 per cent., according to the pension they desire to receive. The management of the fund is entirely in the hands of the workmen. M. Varlez states, however, that, as a general rule, the workmen do not look with favour on the idea of affiliation to the State fund.

Another society which deserves mention is the Pension Fund for the Belgian medical staff (*Corps des pensions du corps médical belge*), established to secure pensions for doctors, druggists, veterinary surgeons, and their widows and children.(3)

3. Savings banks.

The earliest savings banks in Belgium were established as branches of loan societies (*sociétés de crédit*). The savings bank at Huy is of this type. It was established in 1857 under the direction of the bank at Seraing, and in 1875 the management of it was taken over by the bank at Huy. This form of savings bank has caused much discontent, and is now not often adopted. The General Society and the Bank of Belgium (*Société générale* and *Banque de Belgique*) were the first large savings banks established in this form; they were both ruined by the crises in 1838 and 1848. In 1859 M. Frère-Orban introduced a Bill which became law in 1865, establishing the General State savings bank (*Caisse générale d'épargne d'Etat*). This savings bank is controlled by a general council, a council of management, and a general director; it is under the supervision of the State, which appoints the officers, and may remove them. There is no maximum for deposits, but precautions have been taken to secure the savings bank from any danger that might arise. Since 1881, large sums are allowed interest only at the rate of 2 or 1·50 per cent., instead of 3 per cent. Investments may be made in Belgian State funds, in loans to provinces, towns, and communes, mortgages, agricultural loans, the bonds of certain societies, advances on security (*escomptes et avances sur garanties*) and in foreign bonds. The stability of the general savings bank was proved during the crisis caused by the Franco-German war in 1870, when in a few days the bank had more than 18,000,000 francs at its disposal, or two-thirds of the deposits at that time. In December 1891, the number of savings bank books was 800,074, representing deposits to the amount of 333,428,732 francs.(4)

State savings bank.

Private an other savings banks.

In addition to savings banks under the direction of the communal administrations, such as those in the towns of Alost, Malines, Nivelles, and Tournai, a number of private savings banks exist in different parts of the country. Such are the General Society for the Advancement of National Industry, the Liége savings bank, and those instituted by the Cockerill and Vielle-Montagne joint-stock companies. Among others may be mentioned the "*Minerva*" at Hasselt, and the society in M. Ad. Hoste's printing office at Ghent. Savings banks have been instituted in a number of schools, for the benefit of the children attending them. In 1891, out of 7,753 schools, 5,027 had established savings banks, in which 172,629 children of both sexes had made deposits to the amount of over 4,307,176 francs.(5)

4. Clubs for working men.

A number of clubs for providing instruction, recreation, and amusement for working men have been established throughout the country. The society "*Sans Nom non sans Coeur*" at Ghent deserves especial mention. It was established in 1855 as a friendly society, affording aid to persons in distress through accident, sickness, death, or want of employment, and to these functions it has added the establishment and support of institutions tending to the moral and material welfare of the working classes.(6)

C.—Labour Exchanges.

1. At Liége.

At the congress of the *Internationale* at Brussels in 1868, De Paepe expressed a desire for the establishment of a labour exchange, but this wish remained unfulfilled until February 1888, when the first labour exchange in Belgium was established at Liége.(7) Since the beginning of 1892, it has been exclusively under the direction of the Chamber of Commerce. It is governed by a committee of six members appointed by the Chamber of Commerce, and one delegate from the town of Liége; three workmen's representatives may also be appointed by the members of the councils of prud'hommes, and of industry and labour, and by the friendly societies. The members of the committee appoint by co-option a president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer. Meetings of the committee are held at least once a

(1) Vandervelde, "Les Associations professionnelles," I., pp. 18-27, 40, 184, 223. Commission du Travail, II., A., pp. 30, 38, 89; B. pp., 20-6, 50; b., pp. 82, 138; C., pp. 57, 238; D., p. 208. Chambre des Représentants, Projet de loi sur les Sociétés de Secours mutuels. "La Réforme sociale," June 16, 1892, p. 943. Weiler. "Les Institutions ouvrières de Mariemont," pp. 4-14. Boillaert. "Les Institutions ouvrières de Mariemont et de Bascoup," pp. 13-26. Bourée. "Les Conditions du Travail en Belgique," pp. 68, 70.

(2) Caisse de Prévoyance à Mons en faveur des ouvriers mineurs. Rapports, 1890, 1891. Annales des Travaux publics en Belgique, II., 1892, p. 291. Vandervelde. "Les Associations professionnelles," I., p. 194. Exposition universelle internationale de 1889 à Paris. Rapports, Groupe de l'Economie sociale, I., pp. 451-3.

(3) Varlez. "Les Pensions de Retraite en 1892." "Société libérale," Bulletins. Nos. 5, 9, 10, 15. "La Réforme sociale," March 16, 1892, pp. 467-9. Exposition universelle internationale de 1889 à Paris. Rapports, Groupe d'Économie sociale, I., p. 453.

(4) Annuaire statistique, 1892, p. 164.

(5) "Revue sociale et politique," III., No. I., pp. 26-52. Exposition universelle internationale de 1889 à Paris. Rapports, Groupe de l'Économie sociale, I., pp. LXXVII-LXXXVI.; II., pp. 56-8, 78-83. Annuaire statistique, 1892, pp. 164-9. Commission du Travail, II., A., pp. 34, 38, B., 20-6. D'Andrimont. "Le Crédit agricole," p. 79.

(6) Exposition universelle internationale de 1889 à Paris. Rapports, Groupe de l'Économie sociale, II., p. 246.

(7) De Paepe. "Les Services publics," p. 6.

month. The office is open daily from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m.; workmen are registered without charge. It is mainly supported by the Chamber of Commerce and the stock-exchange (*Bourse industrielle*).

2. At Brussels. The establishment of the Brussels exchange was due to the charitable association "*Oeuvre du Travail*," which has no political or party interests, but aims at improving the condition of the unemployed, and saving them from pauperism by facilitating the finding of employment. To this end it has instituted, in addition to the Labour Exchange, a workshop (*comptoir du travail*), and schools for apprentices (*ateliers d'apprentissage*), where unskilled workers of both sexes may be taught some industry. An attempt to found an exchange had been made in 1886 by M. Buls, the burgomaster, but his scheme failed, owing to differences of opinion between the joint syndicates nominated by employers and employed. In April 1889 the exchange was established as a municipal organisation where applications for situations or for workers are received. It is managed by a committee consisting of a president, secretary, and treasurer. In order to secure the direct co-operation of employers and employed, a consultative committee (*commission d'études*) has been formed of two representatives of associations of employers, one of associations of workmen, and one of associations of clerks. The burgomaster presides over the committee, which considers all questions of interest to the labour market in general. Information as to demands for employment is supplied, by order of the burgomaster, through the commissioners of police, and a correspondence is kept up with other exchanges in Belgium and abroad. The funds mainly consist of the subscriptions of the members of the *Oeuvre du Travail*; no registration fee is paid by either employers or employed. The total expenses amount to about 6,400 francs, including the clerks' salaries and office expenses. The town of Brussels supplies the office and keeps it in repair at its own cost, whilst the necessary police supervision is provided at the expense of the commune.

Results. Between March 1890 and March 1891, 5,361 applications were made by workpeople, and 4,091 by employers; and between March 1891 and March 1892, the totals were 5,338 and 3,206 respectively. The number of workpeople during the last-mentioned period included representatives of 201 different occupations. The proportion for whom situations were found cannot be ascertained, as many did not return the tickets issued to them by the exchange. The labour market (*marché du travail*), instituted in May 1891, where employers may place themselves in direct communication with workmen, is open daily from 9 a.m. to 10 a.m. Between May 1891 and March 1892, it was visited by 1,880 workmen and 403 employers.

3. Federation. In February 1892, a federation of labour exchanges throughout the country was formed to facilitate means of finding work for the unemployed in any part of Belgium, to study questions relating to the organisation of labour exchanges or markets, and to establish new exchanges.

4. Private registries. Several trade associations have instituted private labour registries for their members. Mention may also be made of a society for the benefit of the unemployed formed at Wiers in 1885, which acts as a labour exchange. (1)

D.—Higher Council of Labour.

To complete the organisation of the councils of industry and labour (2), a Higher council of labour was instituted at Brussels by two Royal decrees of April 7th, 1892. The council is a consultative body, whose duty it is to prepare questions for submission to the various councils of industry, and to present to the Government general proposals embodying their wishes. Questions relating to apprenticeship, technical education, workshop regulations, the measures to be taken to ensure the proper sanitation and safety of industrial establishments, the organisation of insurance against accidents, strikes and lock-outs, and legislation on trade contracts come within the jurisdiction of the council. It is organised on a basis analogous to that of the Higher councils of commerce, industry, and agriculture, and, like them, its business is to discuss questions submitted to it by the Government, to provide information respecting all labour questions, and to draft Bills for submission to the Legislature. When authorised by the Minister, it also deliberates on questions initiated by its own members. The council consists of 48 members, 16 of whom represent the employers, 16 the employed, and 16 are other persons who have a special knowledge of economic and social questions. The first members were appointed by the Government for four years; after that period the representatives of the employers and employed are to be elected by the councils of industry and labour throughout the country. The council draws up rules for its own management; it is governed by a board consisting of a president, three vice-presidents, and a secretary. It has power to form one or more sections for certain functions; the president, senior vice-president, and secretary are members of each section. The council classifies the matters submitted to it, and determines the order and method of its labours and discussions. All questions are decided by an absolute majority, and in case of an equality of votes, the motion is considered lost. No resolution can be taken, unless at least half of the members are present. Each member receives 6 francs for every meeting which he attends.

(a.) Constitution.

(b.) Work. The first question submitted to the council was the application of articles 4, 6, and 7 of the law of December 13th, 1889, respecting the labour of young men, women, and children in industrial establishments. At its first session, May 18th, 1892, the council divided its members into three sections, for the consideration of this question in the various industries. The first section comprised mines, quarries, metals, the manufacture of machines, glass-making, pottery, and transport; the second, clothing and textile industries; and the third, building and kindred trades, chemical and artistic industries, and those connected with the supply of food. Twenty sessions were held between May and November, to discuss the reports of the councils of industry and labour convoked by a Royal decree on March 20th for the consideration of this question. (3) Five sessions of the whole council were held in October and November 1892, in which the conclusions arrived at were discussed. The propositions of the council were submitted to the permanent provincial committees, by which they were unanimously adopted, with the exception of a few details, and the same propositions were published as the Royal decrees of December 26th and 31st, 1892. (4)

E.—Employers' Liability.

The question of employers' liability has been considerably discussed in Belgium of recent years. It was thoroughly investigated by the Labour Commission, and formed the subject of several interesting reports. (5)

(a.) Present state of law. Up to the present time the question is still regulated by articles 1382 to 1384 of the Civil Code:—"If a "person be injured through any action whatever of "another person, it is obligatory for the person "through whose fault the injury occurred to make "reparation. Each person is responsible for injury "caused not only by his action, but also by negligence "or imprudence on his part. He is responsible not "only for injury due to his personal action, but also "for that caused by the action of persons for whom he "is responsible, or by objects in his keeping. Em-"ployers and heads of departments (*commettants*) are "responsible for injury caused by their servants and "foremen (*préposés*) in the performance of duties in "which the latter have been employed by them." It is incumbent on the workmen to prove that the accident was due to the fault, negligence, or imprudence of the employer or foreman, otherwise, should the cause of the accident be unknown, or should it be due to unavoidable circumstances (*force majeure*), no reparation can be demanded from the employed.

(b.) Proposed remedies. The injustice of this system is apparent, and various remedies have been proposed. The inversion of the proof, strongly advocated by M. Sainctelette, assumes that the employer's responsibility does not result from articles 1382 to 1384 of the Civil Code, but that it exists by virtue of the contract of engagement (*contrat de louage de service*). In accordance with M. Sainctelette's scheme, instead of the workman having to prove that the accident was due to the employer's fault, the employer would be bound to pay compensation, unless he could prove that it was due to some cause unconnected with himself, such as disobedience on the

(1) Bourse du Travail. Liége. Exposé de son Organisation. Id., Bruxelles. Rapports, 1891, 1892. "Bulletin du Travail," Nos. 3-7. F.O. Miscellaneous Series, No. 249, pp. 1-4. Commission du Travail, II., C., pp. 58, 65.

(2) *See* p. 21.

(3) *See* p. 22.

(4) Conseil supérieur du Travail. Première session, 1892. "Moniteur belge," Jan. 14th and Feb. 12th, 1893. F.O. Miscellaneous Series, No. 233. "L'Association catholique," Feb. 15th, 1893, p. 229.

(5) Commission du Travail, III., pp. 209-42, 255-83, 505.

workman's part, or unavoidable circumstances (*force majeure*). Another system proposed is that the individual responsibility of the employer should be replaced by the responsibility of an insurance society, which would grant compensation to injured persons, whatever might have been the cause of the accident, unless it was evidently due to premeditated action on the part of employer or employed.

Bills. The Commission appointed to draw up a Bill regulating the engagement of workpeople and domestic servants adopted a system which is very similar to M. Sainctelette's proposal,(1) but in some points is more favourable to the injured persons, as it does not leave them to bear all the results of accidents which the employer proves to have arisen from unavoidable circumstances. Before the introduction of the Bill embodying the conclusions of the Commission in April 1891, MM. Janson, Casse, Hanssens, and Houzeau brought forward in July 1890 a Bill on compulsory insurance.(2) The complete text of the two Bills is given in the Appendix.(3)

F.—Workmen's Budgets.

One of the points on which the councils of industry and labour were required by the Royal decrees of April and May 1891 to furnish information was the question of workmen's budgets. The statistics furnished by the various sections were taken for the month of April 1891, but in several cases, where the actual expenditure during that period was not ascertained, only an approximate average of the monthly expenses could be arrived at, by dividing the yearly total by twelve. 188 workmen's budgets were obtained, but as only 30 councils were in operation at the time, adequate information on the subject could not be furnished throughout the whole of Belgium. The prices of food, coal, oil, and other articles of consumption were also collected in 129 instances. A few examples of the budgets of families in 15 industries are given below, taken from the returns of the councils of industry and labour.(7) The cost of beer, tobacco, theatre tickets, and losses from gambling are included under the heading "expenditure on luxuries and resulting from improvidence." Assistance in money or in kind from the employers and from charitable institutions, interest on savings bank deposits, or receipts from any property, and any money earned by casual employment are included among "other sources."

(*See* next page, Table R.)

S.—Table showing Number of Persons in Family, with Proportion of various Receipts and Expenses to the whole.

Occupation.	Number of Budget.	Proportion to Total Receipts of					Number of Persons composing the Family.		Proportion to Total Expenditure.			
		Wages of				Other Resources	Adults of 16 Years and upwards.	Children under 16 Years.	Food.	Rent, Clothing, and Household Expenses.	Subscriptions, Deposits, and Religious Expenses.	Luxury and Improvidence.
		Father.	Mother.	Sons.	Daughters.							
Collier	188	60	—	18·7	21·1	0·2	3	3	79	16·8	0·3	3·9
Founder	87	100	—	—	—	—	2	4	58·7	36·2	0·8	4·3
Tram conductor	177	100	—	—	—	—	2	3	44·9	54	1·1	—
Dock-worker	64	61·4	—	37·8	—	0·8	3	3	*58	30	5·7	5·8
Baker	69	73·	2·3	24·4	—	0·3	3	3	61·9	29	5·1	4
Mason	15	50	14·2	35·8	—	—	3	3	53·6	32·8	1·4	12·2
Joiner	151	75·3	—	7·1	—	17·6	4	4	70	26·6	0·3	3·1
Cigar-maker	66	61·9	3·1	35	—	—	3	3	64·9	26·7	3·5	4·9
Glove-maker	18	100	—	—	—	—	2	4	60·6	28·7	3·7	7
Hat-maker	16	58	—	42	—	—	2	4	62·4	35·7	0·9	1
Tailor	11	72·8	—	18·2	9	—	3	3	50·8	43·6	1	4·6
Glass-worker	180	84·5	—	9·4	—	6·1	4	—	66·6	23·4	8·4	1·6
Printer	4	73·3	—	26·7	—	—	3	3	59·5	35·1	2·1	3·3
Cotton-spinner	53	69	—	19·2	—	11·8	2	4	76·8	22·4	0·8	—
Cotton-weaver	58	57·1	—	42·9	—	—	3	3	62·1	34·6	3·2	0·1

* It will be noted that there is a slight error in this calculation.

Women and girls. The above table shows that the labour of women and girls contributes in a very small degree to the total receipts. In the whole of the budgets collected by the councils of industry and labour, there is no instance of a married woman employed in manufacture; the greater number of those who work outside their own homes are charwomen (*journalières*). Thus, it appears that in most industries the working classes would lose little by the total prohibition of women's and girls' labour in manufacturing establishments.(4)

Purchasing power of wages. M. Armand Julin(5) gives the following table, showing the number of days that must be worked to obtain 483 kilogrammes 088 grammes of wheaten bread, or 32 kilogrammes 850 grammes of albumine, substances which, according to Beaunis, constitute 75 per cent. of the annual consumption. The table should be compared with that quoted above,(6) stating the average wage in the same twenty-four industries in 1846 and 1891 at Brussels.

T.—Table showing the Number of Days worked in 1846 as compared with 1891.

Industry.	Days of Work.	
	1846.	1891.
Masons	105·2	43·8
Stonecutters	99·8	41·06
Carpenters	93·2	43·2
Plasterers	95·07	46·9
Moulders in plaster	80·8	41·6
House painters	105·2	43·8
Cabinet-makers and carvers	90·26	32·85
Turners (wood)	96·6	41·06
Blacksmiths	102·1	36·5
„ (shoesmiths)	89·36	36·5
Locksmiths and stove-makers	75·09	36·5
Turners (iron)	97·1	36·5

(1) *See* Articles 13-16, p. 57.
(2) De Quéker, "Etudes sur les Questions ouvrières," pp. 47-85. Bourée. "Les Conditions du Travail," p. 45. Chambre des Représentants. Commission du Contrat de Louage, pp. 317-27.
(3) *See* pp. 55, 57.
(4) Armand Julin. "La Réforme sociale," Nov. 1, 1892, pp. 680-6,
(5) "La Réforme sociale," Oct. 16, 1892, p. 569,
(6) *See* p. 22.
(7) "Salaires et Budgets ouvriers," pp. 232-485.

R.—Table showing Total Expenditure and Receipts during the Month of April 1891.

Occupation.	Locality.	Food.				Lodging.	Clothes.	Household Expenses.	Expenses connected with the Industry.	Total.	Subscriptions to Mutual Aid and other Societies.	Deposits in Savings Bank.	Total.	Expenditure on Luxuries and resulting from Improvidence.	Total Expenditure.	Total Wages received during April 1891.			Other Sources.	Total Receipts.
		Bread.	Vegetables.	Meat.	Total.											Head of Family.	Mother.	Children.		
Collier	Seraing	32·01	28·50	32·40	174·66	9·	21·	7·31	—	37·31	—	—	0·66	8·33	220·96	143·	—	97·50	0·50	241·
Founder	Marchienne au Pont	21·	11·25	3·60	62·18	15·	15·	8·40	—	38·40	—	—	0·80	4·50	105·88	105·90	—	—	—	105·90
Tram conductor	Liége	22·10	8·25	—	60·40	18·	25·75	22·85	6·	72·60	1·50	—	1·50	—	134·50	120·	—	—	—	120·
Dock worker	Ghent	27·	19·40	5·75	70·84	12·	12·	11·20	1·	36·20	3·23	1·	6·81	6·91	120·72	75·	—	46·25	—	122·25
Baker	Ghent	27·	18·90	4·35	65·53	12·	9·	9·69	—	30·69	2·68	0·70	5·83	4·75	105·80	78·	2·55	26·	0·25	106·80
Mason	Brussels	36·	13·60	9·	87·55	8·	21·56	15·25	8·83	53·64	1·	—	2·35	19·80	163·36	91·	26·	65·	—	182·
Joiner	Liége	27·	20·30	11·60	105·85	18·	5·30	15·95	1·	40·25	—	—	0·90	4·75	151·75	90·	—	9·30	20·	119·30
Cigar maker	Ghent	27·	21·	13·	80·88	12·	9·50	11·74	—	33·24	2·68	0·55	4·41	6·	119·43	78·	4·	44·	—	126·
Glove maker	Brussels	22·50	12·	17·70	82·26	19·	8·	11·52	0·55	39·07	3·	—	5·10	9·50	135·93	137·80	—	—	—	137·80
Hat maker	Brussels	31·	18·	30·	111·30	15·	25·	23·	—	63·	1·35	—	1·35	1·50	177·15	90·	—	65·	—	155·
Tailor	Brussels	23·80	11·20	30·	102·80	25·	25·50	28·62	9·	88·12	1·50	—	2·10	9·20	202·22	100·	—	37·50	—	137·50
Glass worker	Seraing	36·20	3·75	7·40	117·85	Own house	25·	16·55	—	41·55	12·	—	14·25	3·	176·65	234·	—	26·	17·	277·
Printer	Brussels	28·20	3·	30·	107·08	22·	28·	13·20	—	63·20	4·50	—	6·	3·67	179·95	132·	—	48·	—	180·
Cotton spinner	Ghent	28·80	17·28	2·75	71·90	8·50	*6·30	12·37	—	20·87	0·17	—	0·77	—	93·54	65·	—	18·	—	94·18
Cotton weaver	Ghent	24·	20·30	9·75	73·95	12·	16·	13·30	—	41·30	3·60	—	3·80	0·15	119·20	64·	—	48·	—	112·

* This sum is not counted in the total, as it is provided by a co-operative bakery to which this family is affiliated.

Industry.	Days of Work.	
	1846.	1891.
Tanners	110·3	39·3
Skin dressers	80·	41·06
Glovemakers	44·68	30·99
Hat makers (felt)	80·8	34·57
„ (straw)	99·3	39·6
Typefounders	95·07	36·5
Printers	71·5	30·
Bookbinders	89·36	46·9
Goldsmiths	70·09	36·5
Jewellers	70·09	27·37
Watchmakers	81·2	27·37
Engravers	85·1	36·5

A further comparison is also given by M. Julin, showing the purchasing power of a coal hewer's wages in 1853, 1866, and 1891.

In 1853 a hewer averaged 2·40 francs: and at this time certain articles of consumption were at famine price.

Quantity.	Article of Food.	Price.	Days of Work.
		Frs.	
100 kilo.	Wheaten bread	35·	14·60
50 „	Potatoes	6·	2·50
10 „	Beef	10·	4·16
30 lit.	Milk	6·	2·50
7 kilo.	Butter	18·20	7·58
2 „	Coffee	5·60	2·33
			33·67 days.

In 1886 the average wage of a hewer in Borinage was 3·10 francs.

Quantity.	Article of Food.	Price.	Days of Work.
		Frs.	
100 kilo.	Wheaten bread	27·	8·71
50 „	Potatoes	4·	1·20
10 „	Beef	17·	5·48
30 lit.	Milk	6·	1·94
7 kilo.	Butter	19·95	6·43
2 „	Coffee	4·22	1·36
			25·21 days.

In 1891 the average wage of a hewer in Borinage was 4.37 francs. The purchasing power of wages was as follows:—

Quantity.	Article of Food.	Price.	Days of Work.
		Frs.	
100 kilo.	Wheaten bread	30·	6·86
50 „	Potatoes	6·50	1·48
10 „	Beef	17·	3·88
30 lit.	Milk	6·	1·37
7 kilo.	Butter	20·86	4·54
2 „	Coffee	5·30	1·21
			19·34 days.

Thus, in order to procure the same quantity, 33·67 days must be worked in 1853, 25·21 in 1886, and 19·34 in 1891. The purchasing power of wages in these years may be shown as follows:—[1]

Purchasing power in 1853 = 100.
„ 1886 = 125·12.
„ 1891 = 142·56.

(1) "La Réforme sociale," pp. 571–2.

G.—Workmen's Dwellings.

The question of workmen's dwellings has been a subject of discussion in Belgium for many years. The publication in 1846 of the reports of the Commission appointed in 1843, to investigate the condition of the working classes in connection with child labour, showed that, as a general rule, workmen's houses and lodgings were in a deplorable state. Brussels contained 30,550 families at that time, of whom 13,721 lived in one room, 6,825 in two, and 10,004 in three or more rooms. The state of dwellings in other towns was as bad or even worse. The higher council of public health held a congress in 1852, at which the question was discussed, and five years later it brought forward a proposal for the formation of a society for building workmen's dwellings in Brussels. This project could not be carried out, since the law on associations did not permit the establishment of building societies under a joint-stock form. In 1866 the Minister of the Interior introduced a Bill extending the application of the law of 1858 on expropriation by zones, and, after much debate, the Bill became law in the following year. Owing to the omission of a clause stipulating that workmen's dwellings should be rebuilt on the expropriated sites, the enforcement of this law only increased the misery of the poorer working classes. They were obliged to take refuge in other quarters equally poor, which soon became as overcrowded as those from which they were expelled. In 1861 a law was passed granting a joint-stock form (*anonymat*) to the society at Verviers for building and letting workmen's dwellings, and six years later, in consequence of the epidemic of cholera, a Bill empowering the Government to grant the same form to any such societies was unanimously passed. Joint-stock societies were almost immediately formed at Liége, Antwerp, and Brussels, followed by others at Tournai and Saint Nicholas. The Liége society has been the most successful of these: between 1867 and and 1874 it built two hundred houses. In 1869 a Commission was appointed to investigate the general condition of miners and metal workers, including their dwellings. It was then stated that many coal companies had built houses, which were let to married workmen. Single men generally lived in lodgings, which in most cases were in a miserable state. The enquiry of 1869 was not followed by any practical result, and the terrible revelations made to the Labour Commission in 1886 showed that little or no improvement had been made since the publication of the report of 1846. In March 1888, the Government introduced a Bill which became law on August 9th, 1889. This law provides for the institution of committees of inspection (*comités de patronage*), which can empower the savings bank to lend part of its funds for the building or purchase of workmen's houses, and regulate the conditions under which expropriation by zones should be carried out.[1] In Ghent, where the number of persons in each house is lower than in any other town in Belgium, the society "*Eigen Heerd is goud weerd*" makes similar loans. The 1890 report of the Brussels committee, established by virtue of the law of 1889, shows that 491 families occupied a whole house, 1,371 three or more rooms, 8,058 two rooms, 6,978 one room, 2,186 a garret, and 200 a cellar. Of the families living in one room, 1,511 consisted of more than five persons.[2] The first co-operative building society was established at Brussels in 1890.[3] In 1891 a decision of the general council of the savings bank, approved by a Royal decree, provided that the loans for building should not be made to the workmen directly, but through the medium of a society. On November 25, 1892, advances had been made from the general savings bank and pension fund to 23 joint-stock and 4 co-operative societies at the rate of interest of 2½ per cent., and at 3 per cent. to 10 joint-stock and 2 co-operative societies. The capital of the joint-stock societies amounted to 3,265,000 francs.[4]

Commissio 1843.

Law, 1867. Expropriation by zones.

Joint-stock building societies.

Commission 1869.

Commission 1886.

Law, 1889. Committees of inspection.

H.—Technical Education.

Industrial and technical education are considerably developed in Belgium. Three distinct classes of schools

(1) *See* p. 36.
(2) Lagasse and Queker. Ville de Bruxelles. Enquête sur les habitations ouvrières en 1890, p. 38.
(3) *See* p. 36.
(4) Bertrand. "Le Logement de l'Ouvrier et du Pauvre en Belgique," pp. 74–320. Loi relative aux Habitations ouvrières et à l'Institution des Comités de Patronage, August 9, 1889. Annuaire statistique de la Belgique, 1892, p. 178. "Société libérale." Bulletins, No. 2. 2me Série, Nos. 4, 5, 6, 8, 11, 12, 15. Commission du Travail. III., pp. 77–92, 441; IV., pp. 55–69, 167–72. "Revue sociale et politique," III., No. 1, pp. 26–52.

have been established; industrial and technical schools, weaving schools and workshops for apprentices, and housekeeping schools for girls. Workers of all ages attend the industrial and technical schools, where the classes are generally held in the evening. As a rule, the instruction is theoretical, including arithmetic, algebra, geometry, physics, chemistry, elementary mechanics, drawing, and industrial economy. The ordinary courses are supplemented by instruction in mining, the manufacture of machines, weaving, spinning, or whatever industries may be practised in the locality. In 1887, when the number of technical schools was 35, the Government proposed to the legislature that an additional subsidy of 200,000 francs should be voted, in order to facilitate the establishment of new schools, and the development of those that already existed. Since this subsidy was granted, a number of new schools have been instituted, and in 1891 the total was 56, attended by 16,302 pupils of both sexes. The schools have also assumed a more distinctly technical character. M. Bourée stated in 1890 that there were at that time three tailors' schools, where pupils over 12 years of age were thoroughly instructed in the trade, and that at Ghent and Tournai the teaching was as much practical as theoretical. The schools of St. Luke are somewhat different from the ordinary technical schools. They are established with the object of forming artistic workmen. In addition to drawing, the course includes theoretical instruction on the materials employed in each industry. Technical schools for girls have also been established, where they are taught sewing, the manufacture of artificial flowers, painting on china, and many other subjects.

1. Industrial and technical schools.

2. Workshops for apprentices and weaving schools.

The earliest workshops for apprentices were established in 1847, when weaving by machinery was first introduced into Flanders. At these schools, the manufacture of fabrics which require the employment of hand looms, is taught. Children over 10 years of age are admitted, and elementary education is combined with technical instruction. Since 1888, the Government has endeavoured to substitute weaving schools for these workshops, where the course of education is more complete, including geometry and mechanics, as well as instruction in the trade. Children are only admitted to these schools when over 12 years of age. In 1891 there were 33 schools of apprentices in Belgium, which were attended by 1,003 pupils. The number of weaving schools was eight, in December 1891. A few trade associations have established workshops for apprentices and technical schools. (1)

3. Housekeeping schools and classes.

Housekeeping schools and classes for girls in Belgium were first established in 1874 on the initiative of the Prince de Chimay, who was at that time governor of Hainault. The earliest instance was the school established by M. Smits, director of a factory at Couillet, for the benefit of the girls employed there. In 1878 the subsidies from the Government were withdrawn, and the schools were suppressed, but in 1889 fresh subsidies were granted. On the proposal of the Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Public Works, Royal decrees were issued in June 1889 and July 1890, establishing committees at Brussels and in the provinces to facilitate the institution of housekeeping schools. These committees are composed of ladies, without distinction of creed, under the presidency of the Countess of Flanders. The result of the decrees was satisfactory; 84 new schools were established between July 1889 and July 1890. The object of the schools is to furnish girls of the working class with theoretical and practical instruction on all matters connected with the management of a house. Special arrangements are made for teaching them to cook, sew, and wash clothes. (2)

(1) *See* p. 10.
(2) Bourée, "Les Conditions du Travail," pp. 59–67. Commission du Travail, III., pp. 395–8, 451–9. Annuaire statistique de la Belgique, 1892, pp. 267–8. Arrêté royal, 26 Juin, 1889. Id., 6 Juillet, 1890.

APPENDIX A.

1. Programme of the Belgian Labour Party (*Parti ouvrier belge*).

Preamble.

A Party has been established amongst the Belgian labour associations, with the object of obtaining for workmen the political rights and material well-being of which they have hitherto been deprived.

Seeing that workmen only acquire these rights, and this well-being through their own strength, the Party will consist exclusively of labour associations;

Seeing that workmen have to contend against sickness and involuntary stoppage of work, and to secure their wages, the Labour Party will endeavour to obtain the greatest possible advantages for associations instituted with this aim, and to found similar associations in localities where they do not yet exist;

Seeing that workmen, like the rest of the world, have a right to the greatest possible liberty, the widest instruction, a good education, and all the enjoyments of an advanced civilization, the Party will work zealously to attain this end;

Seeing that workmen, in spite of all sacrifices, cannot succeed in instituting pension funds, disablement funds, or funds for assistance in case of sickness, rich enough to pension all old workmen, and effectually to support those who are sick or in distress;

Seeing that the majority of workmen possess neither the material nor the tools for agriculture or industry;

Finally, seeing that they have absolutely no part in the management of factories, mines or workshops, and are consequently powerless and helpless against industrial and commercial crises, which affect them so terribly;

The Labour Party is of opinion that the State should intervene to assure the fate of the workman during the period of work, sickness, and old age.

To this end, the Labour Party will not be satisfied with founding funds for assistance in case of sickness, co-operative societies, and protective societies, but it will also take the character of a political party, in order to obtain from the State the support necessary for the perfect well-being of the working classes.

Seeing that Governments conclude international, commercial, postal, and maritime conventions;

Seeing that the interests of workmen are everywhere identical, and in order to prevent strikers from being supplanted by other workmen in times of difficulty, the Labour Party declares that it wishes to place itself in sympathetic relations with the associated workmen in every country, who share its views.

Seeing that the cause of the misery and dependence of the masses is due to the method of working, since the greater part of the workmen do not possess the tools necessary for their work, the Labour Party will endeavour to replace this system of capitalistic production by a mode of working which has for its foundation the common possession of the soil, the sub-soil, and the necessary tools.

In addition to these general objects, and in order to attain its final aim, the Labour Party demands the reforms set forth in the following programme:

I.—Political Programme.

1. Universal suffrage; direct legislation by the people, that is to say, popular sanction and initiative in legislative matters, secret and compulsory voting; elections held on Sunday.

2. Secular, compulsory and complete education for all children, to be conducted at the cost of the community, represented by the State or the communes. Higher instruction by means of classes for adults.

3. The separation of Church and State, religion being considered as a private matter, the suppression of religious expenses, and the return to the nation of property "in mortmain", both personal and real, pertaining to religious corporations, as well as all the industrial and commercial property of these corporations.

4. The application, to all cases, of the system of trial by jury, and of settlement by councils of arbitration elected by universal suffrage. Free administration of justice, and the revision, in an equitable sense, of the articles of the code which establish the political or civil inferiority of workmen, women and natural children.

5. The abolition of conscription, and of the system of substitutes. The equality of military commissions, and the reduction of war expenses. The abolition of standing armies: and the decision of peace and war by the people.

6. The investment of the communes with the control of their own administration, their budget, police, and all their public officers. The nomination by the electors of the burgomaster and sheriffs.

7. A law according State recognition to workmen's syndicates (including amongst other privileges the right to hold property and plead in court).

II.—Economic Programme.

8. A rest of one day in each week; employers to be forbidden to cause work to be done on more than six days out of seven.

9. A law limiting the age at which any person may work, and the duration of such work, in the following manner: (*a*) The abolition of work for children below 12 years of age; (*b*) a combination of work and instruction, and the abolition of all night work for young persons from 12 to 16 years of age; (*c*) the abolition of the employment of women in all industries in which their employment would be incompatible with morality and health; (*d*) the establishment by law of a normal working day for adults of both sexes.

10. A commission elected by workmen, and paid by the State, to introduce healthy and safe conditions into workshops. The sanitary supervision of dwellings.

11. The real responsibility of employers in cases of accidents in connection with work, by a law stipulating that it devolves upon the employer to prove, if necessary, that an accident was due to malice on the part of the workman.

12. The regulation of convict labour, so as to put an end to the competition now made with free labour, and to allow prisoners, at the time of their release, means of finding employment, to avoid falling back into crime.

13. Workmen, and, by preference, labour associations, to have a share in the government of workshops. The suppression of fines and deductions from wages. The suppression of benefit funds regulated by employers. The reversal of the management of these funds to the workmen themselves.

14. The re-organisation of councils of prud'hommes on a basis of equality. Employers to be forbidden to require testimonials and certificates.

15. The gradual transformation of public charity into one vast system of insurance by the State, the provinces, and the communes.

16. The abolition of all taxes on articles of consumption. The abolition of customs, and a progressive tax on net income.

17. The abolition of all contracts and laws alienating public property (such as the national bank, railways, mines, communal property), and the return of this property to the community, represented, according to the case, by the State or the commune.

18. The abolition of all laws made in favour of employers at the expense of workmen.

Rules of the Belgian Labour Party (*Parti ouvrier belge*).

Aim and Organisation.

1. The Belgian Labour Party has been founded with the object of uniting all the resources of labour throughout the country, in order to ameliorate the condition of the working classes, by a mutual understanding.

2. In order to accomplish this task, and eventually to realise its highest aim—the complete emancipation of workmen—it will be organised on a political and economic basis.

3. All protective societies (*sociétés de résistance ou maintien de prix*) may belong to the Labour Party, as well as mutual aid societies, co-operative societies, associations for instruction and propaganda, and, generally, all groups of workmen who accept the programme and rules of the Party.

4. The Labour Party follows in most particulars the constitution of labour associations and their federations. It will especially support the federation of associations of the same trade throughout the country, and will endeavour to place them in relation with similar societies in other countries.

5. It is governed by a general council, appointed annually at the congress. This general council will be chosen by preference in towns where there already exists a local federation of members of the Party.

6. Each affiliated society pays one centime weekly, for each member, to the strike fund, and ten centimes a year, for each member, towards the expenses of correspondence and propaganda, incurred by the general council.

Contribution to the strike fund is only compulsory in the case of protective societies, which alone will directly benefit from it.

The subscriptions are payable, in advance, either at the beginning of the social year, for twelve months, or half-yearly. In case of necessity, the subscription to the strike fund may be increased.

7. Each year, in congress, the general council must present a report on the moral and financial situation of the Party. The accounts of the general council must be audited by a committee of at least three members, nominated by the congress.

8. The Labour Party undertakes to respect all banners.

9. Associations affiliated to the Labour Party shall not become connected with other associations, except on the condition of maintaining their programme intact.

The General Council.

10. The general council of the Labour Party is composed of six members appointed at each annual congress, and a delegate appointed by each local federation and each trade federation.

11. The general council undertakes the correspondence with all the affiliated societies; and propaganda by means of meetings, conferences, manifestoes, pamphlets, etc., wherever necessary.

Congresses.

12. A congress takes place annually, at the time and place fixed by the preceding congress. All the affiliated societies are bound, except under unavoidable circumstances, to send one or more delegates to represent them at the congress.

After having taken the opinion of the federation, a delegate may represent several groups, but those societies of which he is not a member should transmit to him their votes on the order of the day in writing. An extraordinary congress may be summoned by the general council, in case of necessity.

13. Each society may cause to be entered on the agenda of the congress, at least one month before the date fixed, the questions which it desires to have discussed there. Notwithstanding, the congress is always free to regulate the order of the day.

14. Votes are taken by a roll-call of the societies, each society having one vote.

15. All decisions of the congress have the force of law, and are binding on the federated associations.

16. The organisation of the work of the congress, including the formation of committees, is regulated by the congress itself, according to the custom adopted in all labour congresses.

Strikes.

17. In accordance with article 6, a special fund is formed for supporting strikes.

This fund is controlled by the general council, and may not be employed for other purposes, except by a decision of a majority of two-thirds of the protective societies, taken in congress.

18. All affiliated protective societies, in order to secure the right of sharing in the strike funds, must immediately inform the general council of any dispute which may arise with employers, and ask for its advice. The general council can only refuse support if this decision be taken by a majority of two-thirds of the votes.

19. The allowance to be made is determined according to the state of the funds.

20. In order to be able to claim the financial support of the Party, the society on strike must have been affiliated for at least one year, and have paid the contributions.

Notwithstanding, the general council, after having taken the advice of the protective societies, will determine whether financial support shall be given.

Propaganda.

21. In order to propagate its opinions, and work for the organisation of labour (*des forces ouvrières*), the Party will arrange meetings and conferences in all localities where it shall deem necessary. It will also employ the services of the Press. "*Le Peuple*," "*Vooruit*," "*De Toekomst*," "*De Werker*," "*L'Avenir*," and "*L'Emancipation*" (Liége), are recommended as the organs of the Party.

Revision of Rules.

22. The present rules may only be revised in congress, and the question must be regularly introduced among the orders of the day.

All proposals for the revision of the rules must obtain two-thirds of the votes, in order to be admitted.

2. Table of Trade Associations.

The following Table of Trade Associations is adapted from "Les Associations professionnelles," by M. Vandervelde, pp. 240–53:—

A.—Mines, Quarries, and Metals.

Name of Society	Locality.	Date of Establishment.	Number of Members.	Proportion of Unionists.	Funds.	Entrance Fee.	Contributions.	Benefit Funds.		Affiliated to Labour Party.
								Out of Work.	Sick.	
MINES AND QUARRIES :—										
Miners' Federation (Fédération des Mineurs):				P. C.	Fr.					
Order of the Knights of Labour (Ordre des Chevaliers du travail)	Charleroi	1885 to 1889.	23,000	80	?	5 frs.	60 c. per month	No	Optional	No.
Borinage Federation (Fédération boraine.) :—										
Miners' Friendly Society (Mutualité des mineurs)	Wasmes	?	100?	?	?		50 c. per month	No	No	Yes.
Miners' Syndicate (Syndicat des mineurs)	Cuesmes	?	100?	?	?		,, ,, ,,	,,	,,	,,
,, ,, ,, ,,	Quaregnon	1890	?	?	?		,, ,, ,,	,,	,,	,,
,, ,, ,, ,,	Hornu	1890	945	75	?		25 c. per week	,,	Yes	,,
Federation of the Centre (Fédération du Centre) :—										
Miners' Syndicate (Syndicat des mineurs)	La Hestre	1889	300	60	?		50 c. per month	No	No	,,
,, ,, ,, ,,	Houssu	1888	400	50	?		,, ,, ,,	,,	,,	,,
,, Abel Coal Pit (Syndicat de la fosse Abel)	Mariemont	1890	100	50	?		,, ,, ,,	,,	,,	,,
,, St. Arthur Coal Pit (Syndicat de la fosse St. Arthur)	,,	,,	77	25	?		,, ,, ,,	,,	,,	,,
Liége Federation (Fédération liégeoise)	Lize-Seraing, Flemalle, &c.	1891 1891	— —	— —	— —		— —	— —	— —	— —
Quarrymen's Society (Société des compagnons carriers)	Quenast	1888	—	—	—		—	—	—	Yes.
METALS :—										
Metal-workers' Federation (Fédération Métallurgique):										
Engine-makers' Association (Association des mécaniciens)	Brussels	1885	209	—	2,300		1 fr. per month	Yes	No	Yes.
Metal-workers' Society (Métallurgistes)	Ghent	—	350	17	4,500		—	—	,,	,,
Turners' and Planers' Syndicate (Syndicat des tourneurs raboteurs)	Brussels	1886	211	78	—		55 c. per month	No	,,	,,
Moulders' Syndicate (Syndicat des mouleurs)	,,	1885	52	16	—		75 c. per month	,,	,,	,,
Locksmiths' and Stove-makers' Society (Serruriers-poêliers)	,,	1889	23	—	—		1 fr. per month	Yes	,,	,,
Trunk-makers' and Engine-fitters' Syndicate (Syndicat des coffretiers-monteurs).	,,	1887	14	20	250		55 c. per month	No	,,	,,
Pattern-makers' Syndicate (Syndicat des modeleurs)	,,	,,	17	25	—		1 fr. per month	,,	,,	,,
File-cutters' Syndicate (Syndicat des tailleurs de limes)	,,	1890	42	64	—		25 c. per week	Yes	,,	,,
Society of Metal-workers in Liége district (Métallurgistes du bassin de Liége).	,,	—	53	—	—		—	No	,,	,,
Metal-workers' Society (Chambre syndicale de la métallurgie)	Verviers	—	12	—	—		—	,,	,,	,,
Malleable Cast-Iron Moulders' Society (Mouleurs en fonte malléable).	Hersta	—	94	—	—		—	—	,,	,,
Metal-workers' Society (Métallurgistes)	Malines	—	82	—	—		—	No	,,	,,
Metal-workers' Society (Métallurgistes)	Louvain	—	46	—	—		—	,,	,,	,,
Steel-workers' Society (Métallurgistes des aciéries)	Angleur	—	541	—	—		—	—	,,	,,

2. TABLE OF TRADE ASSOCIATIONS—*continued.*

A.—MINES, QUARRIES, AND METALS—*continued.*

Name of Society.	Locality.	Date of Establishment.	Number of Members.	Proportion of Unionists.	Funds.	Entrance Fee.	Contributions.	Benefit Funds.		Affiliated to Labour Party.
								Out of Work.	Sick.	
METALS—*continued.*										
METAL-WORKERS' FEDERATION—*continued.*				P.C.	Fr					
Zinc Casters' Society (Fondeurs en zinc)	Ougrée	—	76	—	—		—	—	No	Yes.
Society of Metal-workers in Seraing district (Métallurgistes du bassin de Seraing).	Seraing	—	1,318	—	—		—	—	„	„
Blast-furnace Men's Society (Métallurgistes des hauts-fourneaux)	Ougrée	—	196	—	—		—	—	„	„
Musical Instrument Makers' Society (Fabricants d'instruments de musique).	Brussels	1889	70	70	600		1 fr. per month	No	„	„
Metal-workers' Society (Métallurgistes)	Antwerp	—	300	—	—		—	—	„	„
Coppersmiths' Society (Syndicat des chaudronniers en cuivre)	Brussels	1887	25	100	—		50 c. per month	No	„	No.
Metal-workers' Association (Association des métallurgistes)	Tubize	1886	425	—	—		35 c. per month	„	Yes	Yes.
BRONZE-WORKERS' FEDERATION (FÉDÉRATION DU BRONZE):										
Bronze Turners' and Fitters' Association (Association des bronziers, monteurs et tourneurs).	Brussels	1865	235	97	—	None	50 c. per month	Yes	No	No.
Bronze Founders' Association (Association des bronziers, mouleurs).	„	„	50	35	—	5 fr.	„ „	„	„	„
Bronze Chasers' Association (Association des bronziers, ciseleurs).	„	„	75	50	—	5 fr.	„ „	„	„	„
Goldsmiths' and Jewellers' Association (Association des bijoutiers-orfèvres).	„	1852	125	20	—	None	1 fr. per month	„	„	Yes.
B.—TRANSPORT.										
Drivers' and Carriers' Syndicate (Syndicat des cochers et camionneurs).	Brussels	1889	200	?	?		?	No	No	Yes.
Dockers' Syndicate (Syndicat des dockers)	Ghent	—	200?	—	?		?	„	„	„
„ „ „	Antwerp	—	—	—	—		—	„	„	„
C.—TEXTILE, CLOTHING, PRINTING, BUILDING, AND MISCELLANEOUS TRADES.										
BAKERS AND CONFECTIONERS:										
Confectioners' Association (Association des confiseurs)	Brussels	1885	50	35	—		50 c. per week	Yes	No	Yes
Bakers' Syndicate (Syndicat des boulangers)	„	1886	63	2?	1,100		1 fr. per month	„	„	„
„ „ „ „	Ghent	1887	60	3?	—		15 c. per week	„	„	„

2. Table of Trade Associations—*continued.*

C.—Textile, Clothing, Printing, Building, and Miscellaneous Trades.

Name of Society.	Locality.	Date of Establishment.	Number of Members.	Proportion of Unionists.	Funds.	Entrance Fee.	Contributions.	Benefit Funds.		Affiliated to Labour Party.
								Out of Work.	Sick.	
BUILDING AND KINDRED TRADES:										
Stone-workers' Federation (Fédération de la pierre):				P.C.	Fr.					
Masons' and Plasterers' Society (Chambre syndicale des maçons et plafonneurs).	Brussels	1887	30	—	300		50 c. per month	No	No	Yes.
Marble-workers' Syndicate (Syndicat des marbriers)	„	1885	60	20	2,000		25 c. per week	Yes	Yes	„
Stone Carvers', Grinders', and Cutters' Syndicate (Syndicat des sculpteurs, mouleurs, et tailleurs de pierre).	„	1884	67	18	2,000		1 fr. per month	„	No	„
Wood-workers' Federation (Fédération du bois):										
Carpenters' and Joiners' Association (Association des menuisiers)	„	1886	500	10	4 to 5,000		50 c. per month	No	„	„
Wood-workers' Association (Association des travailleurs du bois)	Ghent	—	170	—	—		15 c. per week	„	„	„
Cabinet-makers' Friendly Society (Mutualité des ebénistes)	Brussels	1871	275	13	—		60 c. per month	„	Yes	„
Piano-makers' Syndicate (Syndicat des facteurs de pianos)	„	1891	90	68	—		—	„	No	„
Wood-carvers' Society (Sculpteurs sur bois)	„	1880	129	48	1,200		15 c. per week	Yes	„	„
Walking-stick-makers' Society (Travailleurs du rotin)	„	1890	26	12	109		25 c. per fortnight	No	„	„
Gilders' Syndicate (Syndicat des doreurs)	„	1885	125	} 35	{ 2,000		30 c. per week	Yes	„	„
Gilders' Society (Société des doreurs)	„	1849	25		—		—	„	„	No.
Carriage Painters' Syndicate (Syndicat des peintres en équipage)	„	1883	61	60	4,000		50 c. per month	„	Yes	Yes.
Journeymen Painters' Union (Union des ouvriers peintres)	„	1884	122	4	1,200		25 c. per week	„	No	„
CIGAR MAKERS:										
Cigar-makers Federation (Fédération cigarière):										
Cigar-makers' Association (Association des cigariers)	Antwerp	—	750 ?	90	—		1 fr. per week	—	—	—
„ „ „ „	Ghent	—	175	30	2,000		27 c. per week	No.	No	Yes.
„ „ „ „	Liége	—	—	45	—		25 c. per week	—	—	„
CLOTHING TRADES:										
Amalgamated Glovemakers (Collectivité des Gantiers):										
Glove Cutters' and Preparers' Society (Société des coupeurs et dresseurs gantiers).	Brussels	1882	700	93	—	15 frs.	1fr. 40c. per month	No	No	No.
Skin Dyers' Society (Société des teinturiers en peaux)	„	1886	140	95	7,000		35c. per week	Yes	„	Yes.
Skin Softeners' Society (Société des palissonneurs en blanc)	„	1885	80	75	1,600		30c. „ „	No	„	„
Skin Dressers' Society (L'Avenir, société des mégissiers)	„	1884	150?	50	—		—	„	„	No.
Hatmakers' Benevolent Union (Union philanthropique des chapeliers)	„	1838 ?	150	100	22,000	100 frs.	5 per cent. of wages	Yes	Yes	„
Rough Stuff Cutters' Syndicate (Syndicat des coupeurs de matières premières, pour chapellerie).	„	1886	23	?	—		10c. per week	No	No	Yes.

2. Table of Trade Associations—*continued.*

C.—Textile, Clothing, Printing, Building, and Miscellaneous Trades—*continued.*

Name of Society.	Locality.	Date of Establishment.	Number of Members.	Proportion of Unionists.	Funds.	Entrance Fee.	Contributions.	Benefit Funds.		Affiliated to Labour Party.
								Out of Work.	Sick.	
CLOTHING TRADES—*continued.*										
				P.C.	Fr.					
Journeymen Hat Fullers' and Felters' Society (Chambre syndicale des ouvriers chapeliers, fouleurs et feutriers).	Cureghem near Brussels.	1889	20	12	600		—	No	Yes	Yes.
Shoemakers' Society (Chambre syndicale des cordonniers)	Brussels	1885	60	1 or 2	—		25c. per month	„	No	„
„ „ „ „ „ „	Ghent	—	50	—	—		20c. per fortnight	„	„	„
Rough Stuff Cutters' Association (Association des coupeurs de chaussures).	Brussels	1886	35	10 to 15	600		1 fr. per month	„	„	„
Tailors' Federation (Fédération des Tailleurs):										
Tailors' General Association (Association générale des tailleurs)	„	1889	160	4	—		40c. per month	„	„	„
Tailors' Union (Union syndicale des tailleurs)	„	1880	70	4	—		50c. „ „	„	„	„
GLASS TRADE:										
Glass-workers' Union (Union verrière)	Charleroi	1883	1,120	28	—	5 frs.	—	Yes	Yes	No.
Glass-workers' Syndicate (Syndicat des verriers)	Jumet	1890	600	28	—		—	No	No	„
LEATHER TRADE:										
Saddlers' and Harness-makers' Syndicate (Syndicat des selliers-harnacheurs).	Brussels	1890	60	29	—		50c. per fortnight	„	„	Yes.
PRINTING AND BOOK TRADES:										
Typographic Federation (Fédération Typographique):										
Typographic Compositors' and Printer's Association (Association des compositeurs typographes).	Brussels	1842	1,100	98	1,000 ?		2 fr. per month	Yes	„	No.
„ „ „ „	Antwerp	1856	165	80	—		—	„	„	„
„ „ „ „	Ghent	1867	260	70	—		—	„	„	„
„ „ „ „	Liége	1876	148	50	—		—	„	„	„
„ „ „ „	Verviers	1850	26	—	—		—	„	Yes	„
„ „ „ „	Namur	1890	54	60	—		—	No	No	„
Lithographic Printers' Syndicate (Syndicat des lithographes)	Brussels	1877	145	45	22,700		2·25 fr. per month	Yes	Yes	Yes.
„ „ „ „ „	Ghent	—	10?	—	—		—	—	—	„
Lithographic Designers' and Engravers' Syndicate (Syndicat des graveurs et dessinateurs-lithographes).	Brussels	1890	65	52	—		1·25 fr. per month	Yes	No	No.
Lithographic Tracers' Syndicate (Syndicat des ponceurs-lithographes)	„	1890	35	40	—		50 c. per month	No	„	Yes.
Binders' Syndicate (Syndicat des relieurs)	„	1885	40	15	500		„ „	Yes	„	„

2. TABLE OF TRADE ASSOCIATIONS—*continued.*

C.—TEXTILE, CLOTHING, PRINTING, BUILDING, AND MISCELLANEOUS TRADES—*continued.*

Name of Society.	Locality.	Date of Establishment.	Number of Members.	Proportion of Unionists.	Funds.	Entrance Fee.	Contributions.	Benefit Funds.		Affiliated to Labour Party.
								Out of Work.	Sick.	
TEXTILE TRADES:				P.C.	Fr.					
Weavers' Friendly Society (Société fraternelle des tisserands)	Ghent	1857	650	18	—		30 c. per week	No	No	Yes.
Cotton Spinners' Society (Société des fileurs de coton)	„	1876	630	52	—		„ „	„	„	„
„ „ „ „	Alost	1890	500	—	—		—	„	„	„
Flax Spinners' Society (Société des fileurs de lin)	Ghent	1865	528	5	7,900		20 c. per week	„	„	„
Weavers' Syndicate (Syndicat des tisserands)	Verviers	1889	100	—	—		—	—	—	„
Spinners' Syndicate (Syndicat des ouvriers de la filature)	„	1890	50	—	—		—	—	—	„
Association in the Woollen Industry (Chambre syndicale de l'industrie lainière).	„	1889	40	—	—		—	—	—	No.

APPENDIX B.

Text of certain recent Laws and Bills.

1. Law regulating the Payment of Workmen's Wages.

Leopold II., King of the Belgians, to all present and to come, greeting.

The Chambers have adopted, and We sanction, as follows:—

Article 1. The payment of workmen's wages must be in coin or notes possessing legal currency. All payments effected under any other form are null and void.

2. An employer of labour may, however, deduct from his workmen's wages, charges for the supply of (*a*) lodging; (*b*) the enjoyment of a plot of land; (*c*) the tools or implements necessary for their work, and keeping the same in repair; (*d*) goods or materials necessary for the work, of which the workmen have charge, according to custom, or the terms of their engagement; (*e*) such uniform or special dress as the workmen may be compelled to wear.

The objects comprised under (*c*), (*d*), and (*e*) may not be placed to the account of the workmen at a charge exceeding the cost price.

3. The permanent provincial committees may authorise employers of labour to deduct from their workmen's wages charges for the supply of food, clothing, and fuel, provided that these goods are supplied at cost price. They also determine the other conditions to which this authorisation is subject.

Should there be a council of industry and labour in the district, these conditions must be first submitted to its consideration, or that of a competent section. The authorisation is always revocable in case of abuse, at the instance of the council of industry and labour, or of the section. In the event of the authorisation being refused or revoked, an appeal lies to the King, within one month from the date of the notification of the decision of the permanent provincial committee to the parties concerned.

4. Workmen's wages may not be paid in inns, public houses, stores, shops, or in any adjacent buildings.

5. Wages not exceeding five francs a day must be paid at least twice a month, at intervals of not more than sixteen days. For work by the piece or by contract, a partial or final payment shall be made once in each month.

6. With the exception of the cases provided for by (*c*), (*d*), and (*e*) of article 2, employers of labour, managers, foremen, overseers, clerks in a public or private business, contractors or sub-contractors, are forbidden to impose on workmen in their employment such conditions as would prevent them from freely disposing of their wages.

Nevertheless, lodging, or the enjoyment of a plot of ground, as provided for in (*a*) and (*b*) of article 2, may be leased by employers of labour, managers, foremen, overseers, clerks in a public or private business, contractors, or sub-contractors, to the workmen, provided that the agreement be freely entered upon.

7. No deductions of wages may be made, except in the following cases—

(*a*). On account of fines incurred under the rules regularly posted up in the establishment.

(*b*.) On account of subscriptions due from the workman to benevolent or provident funds.

(*c*.) On account of charges authorised by articles 2 and 3 of this act.

(*d*.) On account of advances made in money, not exceeding one-fifth of the amount of the wages.

The price of building plots sold by the employer to workmen is considered as money advanced.

8. An action brought by an employer of labour, manager, foreman, overseer, clerk in a public or private business, by a contractor or sub-contractor, to obtain payment for supplies furnished under other conditions than those indicated in articles 2 and 3 of this act, is not admissible, except for supplies connected with the business carried on by the workman.

9. Unless the contrary be proved, it is presumed that all goods furnished by the wife or children of such employer, manager, foreman, overseer, clerk in a public or private business, contractor, or sub-contractor, have been furnished by the employer, the manager, foreman, overseer, clerk, contractor, or sub-contractor in person.

Further, all goods delivered to the wife of a workman, or to his children living with him, are presumed to have been supplied to the workman himself.

10. A fine of 50 to 2,000 francs shall be inflicted upon any employer who shall have infringed, or caused his agents or representatives to infringe, any of the provisions of articles 1 to 7 inclusive. Managers, foremen, overseers, clerks in a public or private business, contractors or sub-contractors, guilty of the same offence, shall be liable to the same penalty. Nevertheless, should they have acted by order of their employer or overseer, and without having any personal interest in the matter, they shall be liable to a fine of from 26 to 100 francs only, to obtain the payment of which an action may be brought at the employers' expense, reserving his power of recovery from the person actually liable.

All actions on account of infringements provided against by the present law must be brought within a period of six months from the date of the day on which such infringement was committed.

11. The first book of the Criminal Code, including chapter VII., and article 85, shall apply to infringements such as those above mentioned.

12. The present law does not affect agricultural labourers, nor domestic servants, nor, as a general rule, workmen lodged and boarded by their employers.

13. The present law shall come into force on December 31st, 1887.

Given at Ostend, August 16th, 1887,

Leopold.

2. Royal Decree concerning the Execution of the Law of August 16th, 1887, regulating the Payment of Workmen's Wages.

Leopold II., King of the Belgians, to all present and to come, greeting.

In view of the law of August 16th, 1887, regulating the payment of workmen's wages, and especially articles 3 and 6 of the same law;

In view of the law of August 16th, 1887, instituting councils of industry and labour;

On the proposition of our Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Public Works;

We have decreed and decree as follows:—

Article 1. Every demand made to the permanent provincial committee for an authorisation in accordance with article 3 of the law of August 16th, 1887, regulating the payment of wages, shall state—

(*a*.) The name of the industrial establishment or employer whence the request emanates;

(*b*.) The nature of the supplies to be sold to workmen;

(*c*.) The object of such sale.

The receipt shall not form part of this document.

2. The permanent provincial committee may demand such other information, or prescribe such other directions, as it shall deem necessary.

3. Requests for advice, to be eventually submitted to the councils of industry and labour, for their opinion thereon, shall be sent to the president of the competent section.

This section shall be convoked within a week, and the required opinion shall be given within the following week.

4. The decision of the permanent committee shall be pronounced within one month from the receipt of the demand, unless the permanent committee prolong the period by a decree stating the motives for delay. Such prolongation shall not exceed one month.

5. The permanent committee, whether spontaneously, or on the complaint of the parties interested, may revoke the authorisation, in case of abuse. The opinion of the competent section of the council of industry and labour shall be pronounced within the period stated above in article 3 of this decree.

6. The decisions of the permanent committee, whether granting, refusing, or revoking such authorisation, shall be embodied in a decree; they shall be read at a public session, and notified to those interested by a registered letter.

7. The appeal to the King, authorised by (*e*) of article 3 of the above law, shall be made by a declaration forwarded to the clerk of the provincial council, for which he shall give a receipt. The appeal may be made until two months shall have elapsed.

8. Our Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Public Works is charged with the execution of the present decree.

Given at Brussels, December 5th, 1887,

LEOPOLD.

3.—LAW CONCERNING THE LABOUR OF WOMEN, YOUNG PERSONS, AND CHILDREN IN INDUSTRIAL ESTABLISHMENTS.

Leopold II., King of the Belgians, to all present and to come, greeting.

The Chambers have adopted, and We sanction, as follows:—

Article 1. The present law refers to labour executed—

(*a.*) In mines, quarries, and yards.
(*b.*) In works and factories.
(*c.*) In establishments classed as dangerous, unhealthy, or inconvenient, as well as those in which work is performed by means of steam boilers or mechanical motive power.
(*d.*) In ports, landing-stages, and stations.
(*e.*) In transport by land or water.

The provisions of the law apply to public as well as to private establishments, including those for technical instruction, or of a charitable nature.

An exception is made in the case of work carried on in establishments where only the members of one family are employed, under the direction of the father or mother, or of a guardian, provided that these establishments are not classed as dangerous, unhealthy, or inconvenient, or that work is not performed by means of steam boilers or mechanical motive power.

2. The employment of children under 12 years of age is prohibited.

3. The King may, in the manner determined by article 8, forbid the employment of children or youths under 16 years of age, as well as of girls and women between the ages of 16 and 21 years, in work beyond their strength, or which would be attended with danger for them.

In the same manner, the King may forbid, or only authorise for a certain number of hours each day, for a certain number of days, or under certain conditions, the employment of children or youths below the age of 16 years, as well as of girls and women between the ages of 16 and 21 years, in work recognised as unhealthy.

4. Within a period of three years from the publication of the present law, the King shall regulate the duration of the daily hours of work, as well as the duration and conditions of hours of rest, so far as concerns children and youths below 16 years of age, as well as girls and women between 16 and 21 years of age, according to the nature of the occupations in which they may be employed, and the requirements of the industry, profession, or trade.

Children and youths below 16 years of age, as well as girls and women between 16 and 21 years of age, shall not be employed at work for more than twelve hours a day, divided by intervals of repose, the total duration of which shall not be less than one and a half hours.

5. Women shall not be employed at work until four weeks after their confinement.

6. Children and youths below 16 years of age, as well as girls and women between 16 and 21 years of age, shall not be employed after 9 p.m. or before 5 a.m. The King may authorise, whether unconditionally or under certain conditions, the employment of youths over 14 years of age, as well as of girls and women between the ages of 16 and 21, after 9 p.m. or before 5 am., in work which, from its nature, cannot be interrupted or delayed, or can only be performed at stated hours.

So far as concerns labour in mines, the King may further authorise the employment at night of certain classes of workers, over 14 years of age, as well as the employment after 4 a.m. of children of the male sex who have completed their twelfth year.

Such authorisation may be granted for a fixed period by the provincial governors, on the report of a competent inspector, for any industry or trade, in case of a stoppage caused by accident or exceptional circumstances.

The decree of the governor will cease to take effect, if it be not approved, within 10 days, by the minister to whom the supervision of the industry is entrusted. The authorisation may be granted, in accordance with the two preceding paragraphs, for a period not exceeding two months; it may be renewed, with the consent of a competent inspector.

The present article shall come into force on January 1st, 1892.

7. Children and youths below 16 years of age, as well as girls and women between 16 and 21 years of age, shall not be employed at work for more than six days in each week.

Nevertheless, so far as concerns those industries in which the nature of the work does not permit of interruption or delay, the King may authorise the employment of children over 14 years of age, as well as girls and women below 21 years of age, during seven days in each week, whether habitually, or for a certain period, or under certain conditions.

The decrees pronounced by virtue of the preceding paragraph shall in all cases secure to them the time necessary for attention to their religious duties once in each week, as well as one complete day's rest in each fortnight.

In case of necessity, inspectors, burgomasters, and governors may authorise the employment of children and youths below 16 years of age, as well as of girls and women between 16 and 21 years of age, on a seventh day, in all industries. They must give notice of this authorisation to the minister entrusted with the supervision of the industry.

In case of necessity, the authorisation may be granted by the minister for several consecutive weeks, on the report of the inspector, so far as concerns girls and women between the ages of 16 and 21 years, for a period not exceeding six weeks.

8. For the exercise of the power conferred by articles 3, 4, 6, and 7, the King shall consult:—

(*a.*) The councils of industry and labour, or the sections of these councils representing the industry, business, or trade concerned.
(*b.*) The permanent committee of the provincial council.
(*c.*) The higher council of public health, or a technical committee.

They shall forward their opinion within two months from the date of the request, in default of which it shall be disregarded.

The decrees shall be published in the "*Moniteur.*"

9. On and after January 1st, 1892, girls and women below 21 years of age shall not be employed in underground labour in mines and quarries. Nevertheless, the present provision shall not apply to girls and women employed in the said work before the date above mentioned.

10. Children and youths below 16 years of age, as well as girls and women between 16 and 21 years of age, shall bear a certificate, which shall be furnished gratuitously by the communal administration of the locality in which their domicile is situated, or in default of known domicile, of the locality in which they reside, stating their surname and Christian names, the date and place of their birth, their domicile, and the surnames and Christian names of their father and mother, or of their guardian. The certificate shall be drawn up after a model determined by a Royal decree.

Extracts from the Civil Registers, and all others necessary for filling up the certificate, shall be supplied free of cost.

Employers of labour or managers shall keep a register, in which the particulars enumerated in the first paragraph of the present article shall be entered.

11. Employers of labour and managers shall cause the provisions of the present law, the general regulations adopted for its execution, the special regulations concerning their industry, and the rules in force in their own establishment, to be posted up in a conspicuous place in their workshops. This last document shall be lodged with the clerk of the council of prud'hommes, the secretary of the council of industry and labour, and the secretary of the commune in which their establishment is situated.

12. Officials appointed by the Government shall superintend the execution of the present law.

Their powers shall be defined by a Royal decree.

13. The officials appointed in accordance with the preceding article are free to enter all establishments mentioned in article 1.

They are authorised to require the production of the certificates and register prescribed by article 10.

Employers, managers, foremen, and workpeople are compelled to supply the inspectors with any information which they may demand, in order to ensure the observance of the law.

In case of an infringement of the law, the inspectors shall draw up a report, which shall be accepted as fact until the contrary be proved.

A copy of the report shall be sent to the offender within 48 hours, on pain of nullity.

14. Employers, directors, and managers, who shall have knowingly infringed the provisions of the present law, and the decree relative to its execution, shall be liable to a fine of from 26 to 100 francs.

The penalty will be exacted for each person employed in contravention of the law or the decrees, with the exception that the total amount of the fine shall not exceed 1,000 francs.

In case of a repetition of the offence, within 12 months of a previous conviction, the penalties shall be doubled, except that the total fine shall not exceed 2,000 francs.

15. Employers, proprietors, directors, and managers who shall have obstructed the inspection organised in accordance with the present law, shall be liable to a fine of from 26 to 100 francs, without prejudice to the enforcement of penalties incurred under articles 269 to 274 of the Criminal Code.

In case of a repetition of the offence within 12 months of a previous conviction, the penalty shall be doubled.

16. Employers are liable at civil law for the payment of fines incurred by their directors or managers.

17. A father, mother, or guardian who shall have allowed or caused a child or ward to work contrary to the provisions of the present law, shall be liable to a fine of from 1 to 25 francs.

In case of a repetition of the offence within 12 months of a previous conviction, the penalty may be doubled.

18. By a modification of article 100 of the Criminal Code, chapter VII. and article 85 of book I. of this Code are applicable to the infringements provided against by the present law.

19. Public prosecutions, resulting from an infringement of the provisions of the present law, cannot be brought after the lapse of one year from the day on which the infringement was committed.

20. The present law shall come into force one year after publication.

Every three years the Government shall report to the Chambers on the execution and effect of the law.

TEMPORARY PROVISION.

21. So far as concerns the glass industry, the Government, on the report of the inspectors and permanent committees, may delay the application of the law for one year.

Given at Laeken, December 13th, 1889,

LEOPOLD.

4.—SUMMARY OF THE ROYAL DECREES OF DECEMBER 26TH AND 31ST, 1892, AND MARCH 15TH, 1893.

The following summary contains the main points of the Royal decrees published in accordance with articles 4, 6, and 7 of the law of December 13th, 1889, concerning the labour of women, young persons, and children in industrial establishments.

1. Daily hours of labour.

In coal and ore mines, 10½ hours from bank to bank are the maximum for youths under 16 employed underground; during 1893 the maximum is 11 hours. Women and girls under 21 may not work more than 11 hours. Above ground, the maximum is 10½ hours for workers of all categories. In quarries, the regulations for underground workers are the same as in mines. In open quarries, the maximum is 10 hours, and 10½ in workshops for repairing tools; in workshops for stone-cutting, it is eight hours for boys under 16. In the manufacture of coke and charcoal, and in metal foundries, it is 10½ for all categories. Children under 14 must not work more than 10, and other categories of workers more than 11 hours, in works for the manufacture of machines (*construction mécanique*). In zinc rolling-mills, children under 14 may not exceed 5 hours, other categories of workers 10 hours. The hours in the building industry are 8 from November to February inclusive, and 10 during the rest of the year; in trades connected with building, 9 from October to March, 10 for the remainder of the year. In the cigar and tobacco trade, the maximum is 10 hours, and 6 for children under 14; in some of the clothing and kindred industries, the hours are 10, in others 11. The maximum in the manufacture of the various kinds of glass, is 10, 10½, and 10½; in matchmaking, 10½, paper-making and pottery 10; tile and brickmaking 12 hours from April to September, 8 from October to March; for boys under 14, and girls under 16, 8 hours. In the printing trade the maximum is 10 hours, and 8 for young persons under 16 engaged in type founding; the maximum is 10½ in sugar making. 11½ hours are the maximum in the woollen industry, in the other textile industries, children under 13 may not be employed for more than 6, other workers, 11½ hours.

2. Night-work.

In coal and ore mines, boys between 14 and 16 may work underground for 10 hours after 9 p.m. and before 5 a.m.; girls and women between 16 and 21 may be employed in cleaning the lamps 10½ hours after 9 p.m. and before 5 a.m. A special decree for the Mariemont colliery permits boys between 14 and 16 to work underground from 9 to 12 p.m., and women and girls between 16 and 21 to be employed at the sorting machines (*au triage mécanique*) between 9 and 12 p.m. for 9 hours. In metal works, boys between 14 and 16, and women between 16 and 21 may be employed from 9 p.m. to 5 a.m. Boys between 14 and 16 may work the same hours in the manufacture of coke and of paper, and in the glass and sugar industries, the same permission is granted to boys between 14 and 16, and women and girls between 16 and 21.

3. Sunday work.

Boys between 14 and 16 may be employed on a seventh day once in a fortnight, in the manufacture of coke and moulded glass, and in metal works; women and girls between 16 and 21, and boys between 14 and 16 may work in the manufacture of window glass. In each instance but the last, it is expressly stated that the workers must be allowed leisure for their religious duties.

4. Rest.

The above-stated hours of work are divided by intervals of rest, the total duration of which must not be less than 1½ hours, or one-eighth of the time worked.

5.—LAW RELATING TO WORKMEN'S DWELLINGS AND THE INSTITUTION OF COMMITTEES OF INSPECTION (*Comités de patronage*).

Leopold II., King of the Belgians, to all present and to come, greeting.

The Chambers have adopted, and We sanction as follows:—

Article 1. There shall be established in each administrative district, one or more committees charged—

(*a.*) To assist in the building and letting of healthy dwellings for workmen, and their sale to workmen for ready money, or yearly payments.

(*b.*) To study all matters that relate to the healthiness of houses inhabited by the working classes, and the hygiene of the localities in which they are especially situated.

(*c.*) To encourage the development of thrift and assurance, as well as lending societies and institutions for mutual aid and pensions.

These committees shall receive the name of committees of inspection (*comités de patronage*), and shall be composed of not less than five, nor more than eighteen members, nominated for three years; that is to say, from three to ten by the permanent committee of the provincial council, and from two to eight by the Government. They can be subdivided into sections. The committees and their sections shall have a secretary nominated by the permanent committee. The method of working for these committees, and their relations with the Government, the provincial and communal administrations, and the medical commissions, shall be regulated by a Royal decree, without infringing upon the powers of these administrations in the matter of hygiene and public health.

2. The committees of inspection shall be empowered to establish and to distribute rewards for order, cleanliness, and thrift. They can receive, for this purpose, donations and legacies of personal property, and subsidies from the public authorities.

3. The committees of inspection, or their members delegated for this purpose, shall indicate to the communal administration, or to the provincial authority, or to

the Government, such measures as they shall think desirable.

They shall address a report of their proceedings to the Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Public Works. This report shall be communicated to the higher council of health, and each commune shall receive a copy of the passage which concerns it.

4. Before decreeing expropriation by zones in quarters especially inhabited by the working classes, the Government shall take the advice of the committee of inspection as to the conditions to be imposed upon the resale of ground included in the expropriation.

5. The general savings bank and pension fund is authorised to employ a part of the funds at its disposal in loans made to facilitate the building or purchase of workmen's houses, after having previously asked the advice of the committee of inspection.

These loans will be assimilated, according to their form and duration, to provisional investments or to permanent investments of the bank.

6. The general council of the savings bank shall determine the rates and conditions of the said loans, which must receive the approval of the Minister of Finances.

7. In default of payment, at the fixed time, of the sums due to the bank, the realisation of the security which shall have been supplied will be pursued conformably with articles 4 to 9 of the law of May 5th, 1872.

The demand shall be forwarded to the president of the court of first instance. This court shall take cognisance of opposition to the order, and legal notices shall be served to the clerk of civil law.

8. The general savings bank and pension fund is authorised to negotiate transactions for life assurance, with the object of ensuring the repayment at the time determined, or on the death of the person assured, should it occur before the time determined, of the loans granted for the building or purchase of a dwelling. The general conditions, as well as the rate of such assurances, shall be submitted for the Royal sanction. The Royal decree shall mention the table of mortality, the rate of interest, and the previous deduction for the expenses of management, which shall have served as a basis for the establishment of these rates.

9. The provinces, communes, hospitals, and charity organisations may receive donations and legacies, with a view to the building of workmen's dwellings.

10. Exemption from personal contribution, and from all analogous provincial and communal taxes, in proportion to their rental value, upon doors, windows, and furniture, is granted to dwellings occupied by workmen, if the latter are not owners of real property other than that in which they dwell, and if they do not cultivate, for their own advantage, more than 45 acres of ground, that is to say:—

In communes numbering less than 30,000 inhabitants, dwellings having a registered income below 102 francs.

In communes numbering 30,000 to 60,000 inhabitants, dwellings having a registered income below 114 francs.

In communes numbering 60,000 inhabitants or more, dwellings having a registered income below 132 francs.

For the application of these provisions, the communes are classified according to the total population ascertained at each decennial census, and the registered income of the dwellings, not yet registered, or not registered in detail, is determined as in the matter of land tax.

11. Societies which have for their exclusive object the building, purchase, sale, or letting of dwellings destined for the working classes, may take the joint-stock or co-operative form, without losing their civil character, by observing, in the first case, the regulations of section iv., in the second those of section vi., and in both cases those of section viii. of the law of May 18th, 1873, modified by the law of May 22nd, 1886.

12. The deeds and official reports bearing upon the formation, modification, or dissolution of societies having for their object the operations enumerated in article 11, are exempt from stamp duty, and are registered free of cost, unless they include regulations subject to the proportional duties of registration. Extracts, copies, and transcripts of these acts and official reports are likewise exempt from stamp duty. The clerk is not entitled to any fee or perquisite on account of any such extracts or copies.

13. Exemption from stamp duty, and from the formality of registration, is granted to all deeds under private signature, which do not come under the terms of the preceding regulation, and all registers exclusively concerning social administration, as well as the powers of attorney given by the members in their relations with the society.

14. Sales and adjudications to the societies above mentioned, or to public administrations, of real property destined for workmen's dwellings, are only subject to a registration fee of 2·70 francs per cent., and to a fee of 0·65 francs per cent., for registration of the mortgage. The same reduction is applicable to sales and adjudications to workmen of real property destined to serve them as dwellings, or for the building of a dwelling, provided that the extent of the ground built upon or not built upon shall not exceed 25 acres. The position of the workman and the object of the purchase must be stated by a certificate from the committee of inspection, which shall remain affixed to the deed. When necessary, the building of the house must be effected within one year from the date of the deed.

15. The deeds of sale or contract treated of in the preceding article are registered and debited (*enregistrés et transcrits en débet*).

The debtor may pay off in five annual instalments the fees liquidated upon the deeds made by him in the course of each year. The first will fall due on March 1st in the following year. Sums not paid off by a society at the time of its dissolution will become immediately demandable. The seller remains responsible for fees due from the purchaser.

16. The deeds of loan, or opening of credit on account of the societies above mentioned, or of public administrations, made with a view to the building or purchase of real property destined for workmen's dwellings, are registered for a fee of 0·30 francs per cent., if they are contracts for not more than one year, or for a fee of 0·65 francs per cent., if they are contracts for more than one year, even in the case where a security may be furnished by a third party.

The receipts of sums lent are subject to a duty of 0·30 francs per cent.

These provisions are applicable to loans and bills of credit made for the benefit of persons belonging to the working classes, but under the following conditions: 1st. The sums must be exclusively destined for the purchase or building of a house which already serves, or will serve, as a dwelling to the purchaser, or for the purchase of ground for the same object. 2nd. In the latter case, the house must be built within 18 months from the purchase of the land. 3rd. A certificate from the committee of inspection, certifying the object of the operation, and the position of the borrower, must be annexed to the deed.

The deeds of loan and bills of credit must mention the destination of the loan, and, when required, the position of the borrower or creditor.

The acknowledgments of sums remitted by the creditor to the debtor are exempt from stamp and registration fees.

17. In the case mentioned in the second paragraph of article 14, and No. 2 of the third paragraph of article 16, if the house is not built within the given time, it will be subject to the usual duties of estate transfer, and of registration, loan, or bills of credit, and the payment of the fees, or of the supplementary fees, must take place within two months from the expiration of the interval above mentioned.

Action on the part of the treasury will not be prescribed until two years have elapsed after the expiration of the same interval.

18. The stamp duty upon shares and bonds issued by the societies mentioned in article 11 is fixed as follows:—

5 centimes	for those of	50 francs	and under,
10	,,	,,	from 50 to 100 francs,
20	,,	,,	100 to 200 francs,

and so on, 10 centimes for each 100 francs between 200 and 400 francs.

19. The documents of the committees of inspection, including the certificates delivered to workmen, but excluding deeds of borrowing or loan, are exempt from stamp and registration fees.

20. Article 6 of the law of July 5th, 1871, is repealed; nevertheless, dwellings built before January 1st, 1889, by joint-stock companies having for their object the building, purchase, sale, or letting of dwellings destined for the working classes, shall continue to enjoy the privilege of the exemptions granted by articles 1 and

2 of the law of March 28th, 1828. The law of August 12th, 1862, concerning the fees for registration (*droit d'enregistrement et de transcription hypothécaire*), and the law of June 20th, 1867, relating to the joint-stock character of the societies connected with workmen's dwellings, are repealed.

21. The personal contribution, so far as concerns the two last quarters of the year 1889, including the provincial and communal taxes, will not be collected from the taxpayers, who in consequence of article 10 will cease to owe it, or will be restored to those who shall have paid it.

The tax will be considered null and void, and it will not be taken into account in drawing up the Electoral Census. The restitution will be made officially.

Given at Laeken, August 9th, 1889,

LEOPOLD.

6.—BILL FOR THE STATE RECOGNITION OF TRADE ASSOCIATIONS (*Personnification civile accordée aux unions professionnelles*).

Leopold II., King of the Belgians, to all present and to come, greeting.

On the proposal of our Minister of Justice, We have decreed and decree:—

Our Minister of Justice is charged to present in Our name to the Legislative Chambers a Bill, the tenor of which is as follows:—

Article 1. Associations formed exclusively for the study and defence of their professional interests, between persons engaged in industry, commerce, or agriculture, either in the same profession or the same trade, or in professions or trades similar or connected, enjoy recognition by the State (*personnification civile*), within the limits, and under the conditions, which follow from the provisions of the present law. Professions and trades which co-operate to the same industrial product are held to be connected.

2. The Government shall institute a special office for registering the statutes of trade associations; the registration will take place on the presentation of two copies of the registers (*actes*); one of these two copies shall remain deposited among the records of the office.

Trade associations only enjoy recognition from the date of their registration.

3. The rules are required—

1. To mention the name adopted by the association and the locality of its head office.
2. To indicate the object for which the association has been formed.
3. To determine the method of nominating persons charged with the direction of the association, and the management of its property.
4. In case of withdrawal of the State recognition, or of dissolution, to regulate the liquidation of the association's property.
5. To mention that the members of the association bind themselves to submit to arbitration all disputes relating to the conditions of labour, provided that the opposite party shall comply with this regulation.

4. The direction of trade associations enjoying recognition by the State can only be entrusted to Belgian subjects by birth or naturalisation, resident in Belgium, and chosen by the association itself from among its members.

The prohibition mentioned in articles 31 and 33 of the Criminal Code entails the forfeiture of the right to take part in the direction of an association enjoying recognition by the State.

5. A list of the persons, who, by any right whatever, shall take part in the direction of the association, shall be annexed to the rules. Opposite to the name of each person, his residence, occupation, and nationality shall be stated. The list will remain deposited among the records in the registration office.

6. Each document which shall cause a modification of the rules shall be registered within eight days; each document causing a change in the officials charged with the direction of the association, shall be deposited in the registration office within the same period; for infringement of this rule, a fine of 16 to 200 francs shall be imposed upon each of the directors of the association.

7. The trade associations cannot possess, as owners or otherwise, real property other than that which is necessary for their meetings, offices, technical schools, libraries, museums (*collections*), laboratories, and for experiments (*champs d'expérience*).

8. The dispositions from living persons, or by will, for the benefit of trade associations, shall have effect only so far as they shall be authorised conformably with article 76 of the communal law.

The decree which authorised, for the benefit of a trade association, acceptance of a donation in which real property is included, fixes, if necessary, the time within which such property must be alienated.

9. An annual tax will be levied, for the benefit of the State, on real property belonging to trade associations, to stand instead of fees for transfer between living persons, and by will of the deceased. This tax will be calculated at the rate of 15 centimes per franc of the capital of the land tax.

The forms prescribed for the assessment and recovery of the land tax will be followed for the establishment and collection of the said tax.

10. Each person affiliated to an association enjoying State recognition can withdraw at any moment, notwithstanding every stipulation to the contrary, and his retirement shall not necessitate for him the loss of any right that he may have acquired by contributions, or deposits of funds, in a friendly society, or any other institution whatever, dependent on the association.

11. The forfeiture of State recognition may be pronounced by Government, if the property of the association be employed contrary to the regulations of the present law. This regulation holds good also in case of the infringement of article 4 of the present law.

When the forfeiture is pronounced, the real property acquired by the association reverts to the persons from whom it derived, their heirs, or assignees, if coming from a donation. If the acquisition of the property was burdened with certain conditions, it is sold at the suit of the public authorities, and the price is paid into the Government deposit and consignment office.

12. Every false declaration relating to the rules, or to the deeds mentioned in article 6 of the present law, as to the names and professions of the directors and managers, their nationality, or their residence, will be punished by a fine of 16 to 500 francs.

Given at Laeken, January 28th, 1893,

LEOPOLD.

7.—BILL ON ASSURANCE AGAINST ACCIDENTS.

Article 1. Employers are bound to assure their workpeople of both sexes against accidents, to the risks of which they are exposed during the performance of their work.

2. The assurance shall be effected by associations (*collectivités*) of employers in the same or similar industries, connected by common interests; these associations shall be formed by Government, at the instance of the councils of industry and labour of that district, in which are the workpeople whose assurance is in question.

3. Employers shall, nevertheless, have the power of assuring their workpeople in any assurance society whatever, provided that the same shall have satisfied the requirements of the present law, and deposited in the State funds a minimum security of 100,000 francs; this security shall yield interest at the rate of 3½ per cent.

4. Each association shall comprise at least 10,000 workpeople. Should it be impossible for one association to attain this number, it shall be supplemented by groups of associations.

5. By a modification of articles 2 and 4, it shall be allowable for factories, workshops, and yards, in which the number of workmen exceeds 2,000, to effect their own assurance, on obtaining an authorisation from the Government. Nevertheless, should one-third of the workpeople in a factory, workshop, or works, in which the number of employed exceeds 2,000, demand affiliation to an association, the employer shall comply with their request.

In order to guarantee the financial management of the assurance, in cases in which the employers make use of this power, the latter shall deposit in the State funds a minimum security of 50,000 francs, or a sum equal to 10 francs for each workman employed, should the number exceed 5,000, not including fractions of 1,000 francs.

This security will yield interest at the rate of 3½ per cent., if paid in cash; if in public bonds, the entrance fee shall be determined by the state of the money market on the day of the settlement of such security. Only State, provincial, or communal bonds, or bonds guaranteed by the State, can be accepted. Such security shall be applied, by privilege, to ensure the management of the assurance.

6. Each association shall provide for the formation of its assurance funds. It shall determine the amount of the premium for each workman assured, taking into account the number of days and hours of work, the nature of the industry, and the degree of security established in the factories or workshops. The rule fixing the amount of the premium should be approved by a Royal decree. This Royal decree may increase the amount of the premium, if necessary.

Seven-tenths of this premium shall be defrayed by the employers, one-tenth by the Charity Organisation (*bureau de bienfaisance*), from which the workman is entitled by domicile to receive assistance, or in default of such Organisation, by the State; the remaining fifth shall be at the charge of the workman.

7. No workman shall be entitled to any compensation, should it be evident that the accident was entirely due to his own negligence or serious imprudence, or to felonies or misdemeanour of which he may be guilty.

8. In cases in which the accident was clearly caused by the fault or serious neglect of the employer, the association may bring an action against him for damages, in the names of the workmen affected by the accident. Such damages shall be used to increase the compensation allowed under the present law to the victims of the accident, in such measure as shall be determined by the board of arbitration. The surplus shall be paid to the assurance funds.

9. Medical aid shall be furnished gratuitously to the injured persons in all cases, whatever may have been the cause of the accident.

10. Pecuniary compensation shall be regulated as ollows:—

(*a.*) In case of total incapacity to work, the injured person shall be allowed 80 per cent. of his average daily wage during the past year;

(*b.*) In case of death resulting from accident, 35 per cent. shall be allowed to the widow, and, in addition, to each child not above the age of fourteen years, 10 per cent. of the average daily wage received by the deceased during the past year, provided that the total compensation allowed to the widow and children shall not exceed 65 per cent. of such wage. Should the widow marry again, she shall cease to enjoy such compensation. In the event of the deceased having been unmarried, or a widower without children, but the support of his family, the latter shall be allowed compensation not exceeding 40 per cent. of his wages. A father, mother, brothers, or sisters are considered as a family.

(*c.*) In case of permanent partial incapacity to work, the injured person shall be allowed from 10 to 50 per cent. of his daily wage, according to the nature and degree of the injury.

(*d.*) In cases of temporary incapacity to work, an allowance of 65 per cent. of the daily wage shall be made during the continuation of such incapacity. Compensation shall be due from the day following that on which the accident took place.

11. From the time at which the present law shall come into force, every employer who shall have neglected to assure, or cause to be assured, one or more of his workpeople, shall be liable to pay the compensation above-stated, should any of them be killed or injured during work, precisely as though the workpeople had been assured. Such workpeople shall not be compelled to prove anything beyond the fact of the accident, and its injurious effects, reserving to the employer the right to prove that the case is one in which the assurance does not apply to the workman, under the terms of the present law.

12. Employers who have not fulfilled the requirements of the present law within one year after its publication, shall be liable to a fine of from 100 to 500 francs. Employers newly established in business, shall be liable to the same penalty one year after the commencement of their business.

13. The associations formed in accordance with the present law, shall enjoy civil rights, with the exception that they may not acquire real property. Under the authorisation of the Government, they may receive donations or legacies of personal and even real property, on condition of its being converted into personal property. A council of management, composed of five persons, three of whom must be employers, and two workmen chosen by the members of each association from their own numbers, shall control the finances of the association.

The council shall also be required to consider means of assuring safety in the performance of work, and of preventing accidents. It shall annually address a report to the Government, setting forth the provisions requisite to be made by law or by a Royal decree, in order to assure healthy and safe conditions of employment.

14. In connection with each association, a board of arbitration shall be established, composed of actual (*titulaires*) members, and an equal number to act as substitutes, half of whom shall be elected from among the employers, and half from among the workmen. A president and vice-president shall be nominated by the Government from persons unconnected with the association.

The duties of this board of arbitration shall be as follows:—

(*a.*) To arrange disputes which may arise between employers and workmen, or between workmen and the association charged with the assurance, in execution of the present law.

(*b.*) To determine the distribution of the compensation provided for by article 9.

15. Workmen who are members of the council of management or of the board of arbitration, shall be entitled to receive a salary.

16. The provisions of this law are applicable to all persons employed, whose salary does not exceed 1,800 francs a year, and who, from the nature of their occupation, are exposed to any accidents which may occur in the industry in which they are employed.

17. Employers who have, by preference, assured their workmen in an assurance society, or who have effected this assurance themselves, should, in case of a dispute with their workmen, submit the matter to the decision of one of the boards of arbitration in connection with their industry: the costs shall be at their own charge, whatever may be the award.

18. Proceedings before the boards of arbitration shall be absolutely free of cost. The application shall be made by means of a request addressed to the board of arbitration.

The parties concerned shall be summoned by means of a registered letter. They will be heard in person, and may employ the assistance of a counsel. All sessions will be public. The reasons for the award shall be given, and a copy shall be sent in a registered letter to the parties interested. Should the latter fail to appear, they shall be summoned a second time by a registered letter.

The awards given cannot be disputed, and are not subject to appeal.

19. The award will be null and void, (*a*) if the persons concerned have not been summoned in accordance with the provisions of the present law; (*b*) if the grounds of the award are not given; (*c*) if it has not been pronounced at a public session. In this case, the award shall be annulled on a written request upon unstamped paper, addressed to the court of first instance in the district by the party demanding the revocation of the award. If the award be annulled, the court shall send the case and the parties interested before another board of arbitration.

20. In calculating the premiums to be paid by the workmen or persons employed, in order to be entitled to compensation or to a pension, the wage or salary must not be reckoned at more than six francs a day. The day shall be reckoned as ten working hours, and the year as three hundred days.

21. The premiums paid by employers, as well as those paid by workpeople and other persons employed, may be increased or reduced, according to the extent of the charges which the funds will be required to meet. For this purpose, the council of management shall every year examine the assurance funds, and the financial position of the association. This position shall be taken into account in fixing the premiums.

The application of the funds of the association shall be determined by the council of management; investments upon Government securities or deposits in the general savings bank, or advances made on security for building workmen's dwellings (*constructions ouvrières*), will necessarily be included.

22. In addition to assurance against accidents, associations may form—

(*a.*) A sick benefit fund;

(*b.*) A superannuation fund.

In this case, the various funds shall be quite distinct. The rules which govern them should be approved by a Royal decree.

23. Illnesses contracted in consequence of work are placed in the same category as accidents.

24. The State, provinces, communes, and public establishments must assure their workpeople, in accordance with the present law.

25. Employers, whose workpeople are assured in accordance with the present law, are freed from all other responsibility towards those of their workpeople who are victims of accidents in the course of their employment.

26 Associations formed in execution of the present law, are empowered to receive subsidies from the State, the province, communes, hospitals, Charity Organisations, or the Labour fund (*caisse du travail*). Account will be taken of the subsidies, as well as of donations and legacies, in determining the rate of the assurance premium.

27. Those provisions of the Civil Code determining that, in the event of a man dying intestate, his relatives beyond the sixth degree shall inherit his property, are abrogated.

Successions falling to the State, by virtue of the provisions of the Civil Code and of the present law, shall be especially applied to the charges imposed thereon by the same law, and to the subsidies treated in article 25.

PAUL JANSON.
A. CASSE.
L. HANSSENS.
A. HOUZEAU DE LEHAIE.

8.—BILL ON THE ENGAGEMENT OF WORKPEOPLE AND DOMESTIC SERVANTS.

CHAPTER I.—GENERAL REGULATIONS.

Article 1. The engagement of workpeople and domestic servants is a contract by which they undertake to accomplish work, or perform service under the authority, direction and superintendence of an employer of labour, or the head of a household, in return for a remuneration from the latter.

2. The contract is made merely by the consent of the parties, and may be concluded in writing or verbally. In the latter case, the proof of the conditions and execution of the contract may be made by witnesses, even should a value of more than one hundred and fifty francs be in question.

3. The rules formulated by employers of labour, or by heads of households, with a view to determining the conditions of the engagement, must be and remain posted up in the most conspicuous places in the workshops, works, or premises. A copy shall be delivered to the workman or servant, at the time of the engagement, in return for an acknowledgment bearing his signature, or, should he be unable to write, the signatures of two witnesses, selected from the persons in the employment of the employer or head of the household. Where these regulations have been complied with, the rules in question remain binding upon the parties during the whole period of the engagement.

Nevertheless, such rules as threaten workpeople or domestic servants with civil fines, for any other cause than for bad workmanship, or for damage of raw material, cannot be enforced, so far as concerns these penalties, their assessment and their application, until they have received the approval of the permanent committee, or of the King, in the form set forth by article 89.

4. Should the total amount of remuneration due for the work or service not have been expressly stipulated in the agreement, the parties should have recourse, as regards this point, to the custom of the locality, or, at need, to the arbitration of a judge.

5. No person may pledge his work or services, except for a certain period, or for a given undertaking.

6. When not determined by the agreement, or by the nature of the work or service, the duration of the contract is regulated by the usages of the locality.

7. When the engagement is of indefinite duration, each party has the right of withdrawal from the contract, on giving notice to the other party, and observing the interval prescribed by the custom of the locality, or, in default of all custom, an interval of at least eight days.

8. In no case can a workman or servant be compelled to finish the work, or to continue his services, except to answer for damages towards the other party, if he cannot prove a legitimate cause for breach of contract. Under the same conditions, the other party may put an end to the work or service, without previous notice.

9. Workmen or servants are required:—

(*a.*) To accomplish the work or service promised by them, at the time, in the place, and under the conditions determined by the agreement.

(*b.*) To act in conformity with the orders and instructions of the other party, respecting the execution of the work or service, within the limits of the agreement, the laws and the regulations.

(*c.*) To abstain from every action which might endanger their own safety, that of their fellow workmen, or of other persons, and generally conduct themselves in such a manner as to avoid entailing civil or criminal responsibility on an employer or the head of a household, by reason of injury, whether to persons or things.

10. Employers of labour or heads of households are required:—

(*a.*) To provide the remuneration due to the other party, conformably with the agreement, the usage of the locality, or the arbitration of a judge, in accordance with the provisions of article 4, conforming in all cases to the law of August 16th, 1887, on the payment of workmen's wages.

(*b.*) To put, in all due time, at the disposal of the workmen or servants, such assistants, tools, and material as may be necessary for the accomplishment of the work or service, in accordance with the agreement, custom, or circumstances.

(*c.*) To take, with due diligence (*avec la diligence d'un bon père de famille*), all proper measures for ensuring, as far as possible, that the safety of workmen or servants shall not be endangered, during the execution of the work or service, proportioning such measures to the dangers, greater or less, which the execution of such work or service may present, as well as to the age or length of apprenticeship of the workmen or servants.

11. An employer of labour, or head of a household, is answerable, as for his own deed, for injury inflicted on the workman or servant by his overseers, or other workmen or servants, if the action in question be included among the duties, labour, or services with which the latter are charged.

12. The damages due to the party who establishes against the other party, a charge of non-performance of the obligations imposed by articles 9 and 10, are regulated conformably with articles 1149 to 1151, and 1153 to 1155 of the Civil Code. Except in the case provided for by article 30, article 1152 of the Civil Code is also applicable.

13. In addition to the obligations imposed on them by article 10 (*c*), the execution of which is guaranteed by article 12, employers engage by the contract to pay the compensation fixed by the thirty-seventh and following articles, to a workman, or the family of a workman, who has been accidentally killed or injured during the performance of his work.

They are only freed from this obligation by proving that the accident was occasioned by natural causes, independent of the work or its performance, or by the action of persons for whom they are not answerable, or by an action which is no part of the duties, work, or services with which their overseers, workmen, or servants are charged, or, finally, by the fault of the injured person himself.

14. Domestic servants may appeal to the provisions of article 13, should it be proved that the service, in the performance of which they were killed or injured, as

well as the mode of performance of such service, was imposed upon them by the contract, or was expressly ordered by the head of the household, or by some of his foremen, authorised so to do. In this latter case, the amount of compensation is fixed by the one-hundredth and following articles.

15. In the application of articles 13 and 14, such slight and accidental errors (*maladresses*) as may be due to age, or to the conditions under which the work or service has to be performed, do not constitute a fault on the part of the injured person.

16. Employers of labour and heads of households are only liable to make the reparation provided for in articles 13 and 14, and fixed by the thirty-seventh and following articles, or by the hundredth and following articles, even in cases when the accident might have been avoided, or rendered less serious, by certain arrangements or precautions, if the omission or insufficiency of such arrangements or precautions do not constitute neglect of the essential duties imposed upon them by article 10 (*c*).

17. Damages and compensation due from employers or heads of households, to workmen, domestic servants, or their families, for bodily injuries incurred during the work or service, may not be transferred or distrained (*cédes ni saisis*), except under the conditions indicated by articles 1 and 3 of the law of August 18th, 1887.

18. Article 19 of the law of December 19th, 1851, is extended to the damages and compensation mentioned in the preceding article.

The lien (*privilège*) ranks next after that of persons who have supplied means of subsistence to the debtor and his family.

Should the damages or compensation be payable in the form of pensions, the lien extends to an amount of capital determined conformably with article 28.

19. In cases where employers or heads of households are assured in their own names, and for their own advantage, in order to guarantee themselves against risks resulting from the obligations which they assume towards their workmen, domestic servants, or the families of the latter, in accordance with the provisions of articles 13 to 16 inclusive, the claim of the parties interested ranks first against employers or heads of households, for all sums due to the latter from the assurer. On the request of the workmen, domestic servants, or their families, the assurer is bound, within the limits of the contract of assurance, to pay directly to them the pensions allowed as compensation, at the cost of the employers or heads of households.

20. An employer or the head of a household may take out an assurance, whether individually or collectively, on account of, and for the profit of, his workmen and servants, even without the consent of the latter. In order to render the provisions of article 22 legally effective, such assurance must be accomplished entirely at the expense of the employer or the head of a household; it must also cover all risks defined by articles 13 to 16 inclusive, and guarantee to the beneficiaries of the assurance the payment or service of the compensation or pensions fixed by chapter II., section 2, or by chapter III.

21. Article 29 must be applied, in order to determine whether, in this last respect, the assurance accomplished by the employer or head of a household satisfies the law.

22. When the assurance treated of in article 20 is in accordance with the requirements of the present law, and of the law concerning the assurance of workmen, employers or heads of households are freed from the obligations imposed on them by the provisions of articles 13 to 16 inclusive, and the person injured is only empowered to bring an action against the assurer.

23. The assurer may recover from the employer or head of a household the sums paid to workmen, servants, or their families, if he proves that the accident was caused by a fault which may be personally imputed to the latter, in accordance with the provisions of this law, but he may not, on account of these circumstances, either refuse or delay the payment of the compensation or pensions guaranteed to the workmen, servants, or their families.

24. In the same case, the person injured, or his family, has the right of claiming from the employer or head of a household complete reparation for the injury, in accordance with the provisions of article 12, subject, nevertheless, to deduction of any indemnity that he may have obtained, whether under the head of assurance, or by the application of article 29.

25. The assurer is freed from all obligations towards the person injured, and the family of the latter, should he prove that the accident was due to one of the causes named in article 13, section 2.

26. Should no assurance have been effected by the employers or heads of households to cover the risks named in articles 19 and 20, should the assurance have lapsed or be deemed insufficient, on the demand of the workmen, servants, or their families, they are bound to pay into a State bank, or a bank guaranteed by the State, whether as a security, or a final discharge, the capital necessary to ensure the payment of the pensions allowed by the judge.

They may, however, be exempt from making this payment, on furnishing a mortgage on property free of all other charges, a guarantee on any articles of value admitted as investments by the State savings bank and pension fund, or an investment in Government securities (*inscription de rentes sur l'Etat*), in the names of the workmen or servants, or their families. The court may finally authorise employers or heads of households to substitute one of these two last guarantees for a mortgage which should have been made.

27. Workmen, domestic servants, or the members of their families, to whom a pension has been granted as damages, in accordance with articles 10 (*c*) and 12, have power to claim the guarantees specified in the preceding article.

28. The assessment of the capital necessary for the payment or the guarantee of life annuities, is made, according to the age of the injured person at the time of the accident, by a table of mortality, and at a rate of interest determined by a Royal decree.

Should the annuity be granted to a member of the family, regard is had to his age at the time of the accident, if the death of the injured person took place immediately, or on the day of his decease, in the contrary case.

29. From the total amount of the damages or compensation due to workmen, domestic servants, or the members of their family, a deduction shall be made of any sums of money or annuities which they are entitled to claim from relief funds, mutual aid societies, or similar institutions, on account of bodily injuries incurred during their work or service; the whole amount should be deducted, if the subscriptions required by such funds or institutions are exclusively defrayed by employers or heads of households, or a due proportion, if such expenses have been only partially borne by them.

30. All agreements concluded beforehand are void, which have for their object, contrary to the provisions of the present law, whether to limit the obligations and engagements of employers or heads of households, in what concerns the personal safety of their workmen or domestic servants, or to reduce the amount of the damages or compensation due in the case when such safety has been affected.

31. The prescription of an action brought by workmen or domestic servants for payment of compensation due to them, is regulated by the provisions of sub-section IV., section V., of chapter XX. of the Civil Code.

Unless an acknowledgment has been made of the debt, whether verbal or otherwise, workmen, domestic servants, or their families, forfeit their right to bring an action for compensation against employers or heads of households, on account of bodily injuries accidentally sustained during their work or service, if such action be not brought within the interval of one year from the day of the accident.

Other actions arising from the engagement, whether for the advantage of workmen and domestic servants, or of employers or heads of households, are limited to three years.

32. The contract of engagement is terminated—

(*a.*) By the expiration of the term of the engagement, or the accomplishment of the work or service;

(*b.*) By the death of the workman or domestic servant.

Chapter II.—Special Regulations for Workmen.

Concerning Persons who are comprised among Workmen, or who are classed with them. Section 1.

33. Foremen and overseers (*chefs ouvriers, chefs d'atelier, et contre-maîtres*) are included among the workmen.

34. The employés or subordinate clerical assistants (*commis d'exploitation*), engaged in the workshops, yards, or works, who, like the workmen, are exposed to the accidents in the course of their work, are classed with them.

35. Those domestic servants, who take even a temporary and accidental part in industrial or agricultural work, in addition to their service in the house or farm, are also classed with the workmen.

36. Unless a particular exception be made, the provisions of the present law are applicable to workmen employed under the direct orders of the State, the provinces, the communes, and public institutions.

Section II. Concerning the Compensation due to Workmen from Employers in accordance with Article 13.

37. When the accident has resulted in an absolute temporary incapacity to work, of a duration of more than fifteen days, the injured person may claim a daily payment equal to sixty-five per cent. of his average daily wages. Nevertheless, the employer is exempt from the obligation of paying the above-stated compensation to the injured person, during the first three months following the accident, if able to prove—

(*a.*) That he has formed, with or without the concurrence of his workpeople, special relief funds for the sick, or if he has associated them, at his own expense, to mutual aid societies recognised by law.

(*b.*) That such funds or societies are obliged to pay, in addition to medical expenses, compensation equal to at least sixty-five per cent. of the wages, whether during the whole continuance of the illness, or at least during the three first months.

38. Should such incapacity to work become permanent, this indemnity is transformed into a life annuity, calculated on the same basis.

39. In case of permanent partial incapacity to work, the amount of the life annuity varies between ten and fifty per cent. of the average daily wage, according to the nature and extent of the incapacity.

40. In the case of death resulting from an accident, the following compensation is allowed:—

To the husband or wife who is neither separated nor divorced, up to the time of another marriage, a life annuity equal to twenty per cent. of the average daily wage of the deceased; a widower is not entitled to this pension, unless he be impotent and incapable of supporting himself.

For each legitimate, or recognised natural child, up to the age of 14 years, a life annuity equal to ten per cent. of the same wage.

To each relative in the ascending line, brother or sister, of whom the deceased was the sole support, should the latter have left no child entitled to compensation, a life annuity of 10 per cent., calculated as above.

The husband or wife and the children, or the husband or wife, the relatives in the ascending line, and brother and sisters, may not together receive more than 50 per cent. of the average daily wage of the deceased.

The husband or wife and the natural children of the deceased are only entitled to the annuity, if the marriage or the recognition took place before the accident.

Should death not have immediately followed upon the accident from which it resulted, the heirs of the deceased are entitled to claim such part of the compensation allotted to him by article 37, as may not have been paid.

41. The representatives of a foreigner, who, at the time of the accident, were not habitually resident in Belgian territory, are not permitted to claim the annuities provided for in article 40, unless it be proved that Belgians enjoy this same advantage, without conditions of residence, in that country from which such foreigner derives.

42. The amount of temporary compensation or life annuities may be reduced by the judge to a maximum of 10 per cent., should the employer prove that the results of the injuries produced by the accident have been aggravated by the advanced age of the injured person, by predisposition to disease (*prédispositions morbides*), or by a previous injury.

The two circumstances last mentioned are only to be taken into consideration if they are in no way connected with the exercise of the industry in the works where the accident took place.

43. When the person injured is entitled to an indemnity or annuity, in accordance with the preceding articles, the employer must in addition pay the medical expenses, to an amount not exceeding 100 francs, and funeral expenses, according to the custom of the locality, not exceeding fifty francs.

44. By the average daily wage, is meant that which the injured person has gained during the year preceding the accident, in those works in which the accident occurred. The annual earnings which determine the amount of the life annuity due in the case of permanent incapacity to work, or on account of the death of the injured person, are equal to three hundred times the average daily wage.

45. In order to fix the average daily wage, account must be taken of that part of the wage paid in kind. The valuation of the goods supplied must be made by the judge, at the current prices of the locality.

46. Workmen employed during less than one year in the works in which the accident took place, are treated, as far as concerns the rate of their average daily wage, in the same manner as workmen who have been employed in the same work, or at least in work of a similar nature, during the whole year.

47. When, from its nature, the industry in which the accident has occurred can only be carried on during a part of the year, the average daily wage during the period of work serves to determine the earnings of the injured person during the entire year.

48. The average daily wage assigned to an apprentice, or to a workman below twenty years of age, must not be inferior to the lowest wage paid to a workman above twenty years of age, for similar work, in the same part of the works.

49. Temporary compensation and life annuities, due either to an injured person for permanent incapacity to work, or to his family, in case of the immediate death of the injured person, are dated from the day of the accident. Should death not follow immediately upon the accident, the annuity due to the family is reckoned from the day of the injured person's death. A life annuity, to be reckoned from the day on which, whether by the proceedings treated of in article 68, or by subsequent proceedings agreed upon between the parties, or by a definite judgment, it is established that the incapacity to work is of a permanent character, a life annuity is substituted for the temporary compensation which was at first paid to the injured person.

50. Temporary compensation shall be paid at the time adopted for paying wages, according to agreement and custom.

Life annuities are payable monthly in advance, on the production of a certificate of life.

Medical and funeral expenses must be repaid within one week from the end of the attendance, or from the date of decease, on the production of the accounts duly receipted.

Temporary compensation and life annuities, as well as medical and funeral expenses, constitute claims maintainable by law (*créances quérables*).

51. Employers should regularly keep a special book, in which to enter the days on which work has been carried on, the names of the workmen engaged, as well as the wages earned by each.

Concerning Compulsory Assurance. Section III.

52. The following must be assured against accidents resulting from work:—

Workmen, employés, or clerical assistants classed with workpeople who are employed:

In quarries, mines, or other underground works.

In railway works and in navigation, whether inland or maritime.

In factories, workshops, yards, and works in which machinery moved by compressed air, hot air, steam, gas, electricity, or any elemental motive power is used. In industries or works in which explosive substances are employed or produced.

53. So far as concerns agriculture or forestry, the compulsory assurance set forth in the preceding article, on account of the employment of machinery, does not

extend to workmen who, by reason of the organisation of the work, and of the premises, cannot be exposed to any danger resulting from the employment of such machinery.

54. Workmen employed for, and under the direct orders of the State, the provinces, the communes, and public institutions, are not subject to compulsory assurance.

55. The Government is authorised to enforce assurance in other industries than those named in article 52. Its decision, taken in the form of an order of the Administration, and preceded by a report to the King, shall be immediately communicated to the Legislative Chambers, and shall not come into force until the first of January next following its publication in the "*Moniteur.*"

56. The compulsory assurance of workmen or employés, or clerical assistants classed with workmen, is contracted under the conditions set forth in article 20. Articles 21 to 25 inclusive apply in the matter of compulsory assurance.

57. The law respecting the assurance of workmen determines the different methods of assurance between which the employer, who is bound to assure his workmen, is empowered to choose, the form and arrangement of the assurance, as well as its conditions and results, in so far as these last are not determined by the present law.

Section IV. Concerning the Proof of Accidents.

58. The employer, or, in his absence, or where a company is concerned, the manager, must declare to the local police, within twenty-four hours, every case of death, or injury entailing either death, or incapacity to work of more than three days' duration, which may occur in the establishment or works.

59. The declaration shall be made in writing, and a copy shall be taken. A doctor's certificate must be attached. A receipt shall be given to the person making the declaration.

60. Within twenty-four hours of the declaration, the burgomaster or commissioner of police must furnish a report of the nature and probable causes of the accident, the names, rank, domicile, and occupation of the persons injured, the locality to which they have been removed, the nature of the injuries which they have sustained, and the probable duration of their incapacity to work. The report must also show as far as possible, (*a*) the daily wage of the injured persons, whether according to the wage-book prescribed by article 51, or according to other documents or information; (*b*) the names and domicile of any persons partially or entirely supported by the injured persons; (*c*) the associations, relief funds, mutual aid societies, or other institutions from which the injured persons appear to be entitled to claim assistance, on account of accidents resulting from work.

61. Should it appear from the first statement, that the accident may be attributed to the nature of the work, and that it has been followed either by death, or by injury which may occasion death or absolute incapacity to work of more than 15 days' duration, the burgomaster or commissioner of police shall immediately forward to the justice of the peace one copy of the declaration, the doctor's certificate, and a copy of the report prepared in accordance with article 60.

62. The justice of the peace, accompanied by his clerk, shall immediately visit the spot where the accident occurred, to enquire into and establish all facts which may serve to make known the truth, and especially those indicated in article 60.

He shall hear witnesses, and, at need, obtain the services of experts and doctors, in order to determine the causes of the accident, and the extent of the injuries sustained by the injured persons.

Where Government establishments are concerned, experts must be chosen from amongst the Government officials, excluding any who may be held responsible for the affair, on account of their share in the management or control.

Except in Government establishments, the justice of the peace is empowered to order the performance of any work necessary in order to establish the nature and causes of the accident, and to requisition the workmen necessary for this purpose.

63. In all proceedings at the spot where the accident occurred, as well as for the continuation of the enquiry, the justice of the peace must observe the forms prescribed in chapters VII. and VIII. of book I. of the Code of Civil Procedure. In all cases, however, a report must be made of the examination of witnesses, and the other proceedings of the magistrate.

64. Employers, injured persons, the members of their families, in cases under article 40, or their representatives, have the right to be present during the proceedings of the local police, as also of the justice of the peace, in order to make their own statements and observations.

The same permission is granted to the assurers, banks, societies, or institutions mentioned in article 60.

65. The expenses of the examination made by the justice of the peace, and of the proceedings ordered by him, as well as the expenses of the experts' enquiry, are defrayed by the State, and assessed as in a criminal case.

Nevertheless, the State may recover the same from the employer, if the latter be afterwards sentenced, on account of the accident, to a criminal or correctional penalty, or to damages according to the terms of article 12 of the present law.

66. The examination must be finished with as little delay as possible.

When the enquiry is terminated, the justice of the peace shall inform all the parties interested, that the documents have been deposited in the office, and are at their disposal, to be perused or copied at their own expense.

67. One week after this notice, the justice of the peace shall summon, by a letter delivered through the post, all the parties interested, to appear before him at three clear days' notice, whether in person, or through a special representative charged with a power of attorney duly registered under a private seal.

68. On the appointed day, the justice of the peace, assisted by his clerk, shall endeavour to conciliate the parties, having regard to the claims of each. Should an agreement be made between them, a report of their decision shall be drawn up, to serve the workman, or the members of his family, in the cases provided for by article 40, as a writ of execution against those persons who are recognised as debtors for damages, or compensation, on account of injuries sustained through or at the time of their employment.

69. Should the parties, or certain among them, fail to agree, the justice of the peace shall dismiss them, to sue at law, according to the regulations hereafter set forth.

70. When the justice of the peace has not been charged with the examination of the matter, according to the provisions of articles 61 to 66, the workmen, or, in the cases provided for by article 40, the members of their family, are empowered to apply to the said justice of the peace, to endeavour to effect a settlement by means of conciliation.

The justice of the peace must proceed according to articles 67, 68, and 69 on the verbal statement merely of the parties making the request.

Concerning Jurisdiction and the Mode of Procedure in the Matter of Accidents. Section V.

71. The justice of the peace for the district in which the accident occurred, has cognisance, as a court of final appeal, of actions brought by an injured person to obtain the payment of compensation for temporary incapacity to work, due from employers by virtue of article 13.

72. If an assurance has been effected in the interests of the workmen, whether individually or collectively, for the causes indicated in article 71, the assurers may be summoned by the injured person before the justice of the peace, together with the employers. The sentence is equally without appeal, so far as regards the assurers.

73. Other actions based upon article 13, as well as actions to obtain damages for bodily injuries, for which employers are responsible, in accordance with articles 10 (*c*) and 12, are referred to the court of first instance in the neighbourhood in which the accident occurred. The first paragraph of article 72 is applicable.

74. The court of first instance gives sentence (*statue*), finally or with liberty to appeal, according to the distinction established by the law of March 25th, 1876. Nevertheless, in order to determine the value of the

suit, in case of a life annuity, the rules prescribed by the Royal decree, referred to in article 28, must be observed.

75. The justice of the peace, and the court of first instance, are empowered to hear the case (*sont saisis de la contestation*), on the request of the injured person, or the members of his family, as defined in article 40.

This request must state summarily the facts of the case, and indicate the surnames, Christian names, occupation, and domicile of the defendants.

The formalities of a stamp and registration are dispensed with.

The signature of the plaintiffs must be authenticated, without charge, by the burgomaster, or by another member of the college of sheriffs in the locality of their domicile or residence.

76. If occasion offers, the justice of the peace, or the court of first instance, sitting in the council chamber, shall give an order, written at the foot of the request, by which the persons named as defendants are required to present themselves for a public hearing at eight clear days' notice. The clerk must immediately inform them of this order, by means of a registered letter.

The order is exempt from stamp registration and fee (*greffe*).

77. The justice of the peace, or the court of first instance, after having heard the statements of the plaintiffs and defendants, appearing either in person or by attorney, must allow the plaintiffs freely to state the value of their claims, provided that their pretensions be not obviously without foundation. Before courts of first instance, the opinion of the public department (*ministère public*) is heard.

A foreigner may claim the privilege of gratuitous procedure, should a treaty have been concluded with his native country, conferring the same privilege on Belgian subjects. The judgment granting or refusing the privilege of gratuitous procedure is not liable to opposition, or to appeal.

78. Proceedings are taken before the court of appeal, in accordance with articles 4 and 5 of the law of July 30th, 1889.

79. The execution of the judgment or order of court granting the privilege of a free trial is regulated by the provisions of the said law.

80. Before all tribunals, the case must be examined and deemed urgent, and it shall take precedence of other business. Before the courts of first instance and of appeal, the procedure is summary.

It may, however, be ordered that the enquiry shall be held before an assessor (*juge-commissaire*).

81. The execution of judgments and orders of court may be carried out against the condemned parties in spite of opposition or appeal, and without bail.

82. Should the magistrate deem the case not fully prepared, and consider that there is cause to require proofs, either as regards the nature of the occurrence which produced the injury, or the nature and results of the injury itself, if the claims of the plaintiffs are based upon actual facts which render it probable, he may sentence the defendants to pay to them provisionally a temporary pension, the amount of which shall not exceed that indicated in articles 37, 39, or 40, according to the circumstances of the case.

83. The appeal against the judgments of the courts of first instance shall be lodged within eight days of its notification to the party, if it concerns a point of law (*jugement contradictoire*), and of the day on which the power of contesting lapsed, if it is a case of judgment by default.

84. In the case of an appeal for the reversal of a judgment (*pour le pourvoi en cassation*), either of a justice of the peace or of the courts of first instance, or the orders of the court of appeal, the interval is 15 days.

85. Except in so far as concerns jurisdiction, appeals may only be received against judgments or orders of the court, which do not pronounce definitely on the point of law, after, and within the same time as against the decision on the facts of the case (*fond*).

86. The parties interested may obtain the reversal of the final judgments or orders of court, which allowed damages, compensation, or life annuities, on proving that the injury sustained by the injured person has entailed consequences more or less serious than those held to be permanent by the said judgments or orders of court, from the point of view whether of the life of

87. [redacted] has pronou[redacted] required.

It can only be [redacted] decision, the judge ha[redacted] the power of making it[redacted] interval of not more than on[redacted] judgment or final order of court.

When the reservation of the pow[redacted] by the injured person, the decision [redacted] him must name a doctor, to make a [redacted] bodily condition and capacity to work of [redacted] person, after the expiration of six months [redacted] time of the decision.

The report of the doctor must be placed in the off[redacted] and be submitted to the judge at the time of the hearing of the appeal.

88. Under the consent of the other party, and without prejudice to the methods of proof, the revision may only be granted on fresh information from skilled men, commissioned by the judge to form an opinion on the cause, nature, and importance of the modifications which, according to the statement, have been produced in the health of the injured person, or in his capacity to work.

Means of preventing Accidents and Penalties (*sanctions pénales*). — Section VI.

89. Employers who make use of machinery, and habitually employ at least ten workmen, must establish regulations for the management (*sur la police du travail*) of their work, especially in so far as concerns the use of machinery, engines, and tools, and the precautionary measures to be imposed on the workmen.

These regulations must be submitted to the permanent committee of the provincial council, which may refuse to ratify them, or may introduce modifications.

Before coming to a determination, the committee may require the advice of the officials charged with the inspection and supervision of works in the same category; it may also require the advice of the competent council of industry and labour. Employers, as well as the provincial governor, have the right to appeal to the King, in the form and within the intervals set forth in article 8 of the Royal decree of January 29th, 1863.

90. After being ratified by the permanent committee, or by the King, the regulations required by article 89 shall be printed in large type, and posted up in the most conspicuous places in the establishment or works. A copy shall be given to each workman at the time of his engagement.

91. The permanent committee is entitled at any time to withdraw its ratification of the regulations drawn up by employers, or to make such ratification upon other conditions.

92. The employers designated in article 89 shall cause to be posted up, in the most suitable places, in their establishments or works, the text of the present law, printed in clear type.

93. The burgomasters or commissioners of police, and justices of the peace, shall send to the provincial governor a copy of the reports which they have drawn up, in accordance with articles 60 and 62.

The clerks of the justices of the peace, the courts of first instance, and the courts of appeal, shall respectively transmit to the same official copies of the articles of conciliation agreed upon in accordance with article 68, and of the judgments or final orders of court pronounced on the subject of damages, temporary compensation, or life annuities, claimed on account of bodily injuries incurred by the workman through or at the time of his employment.

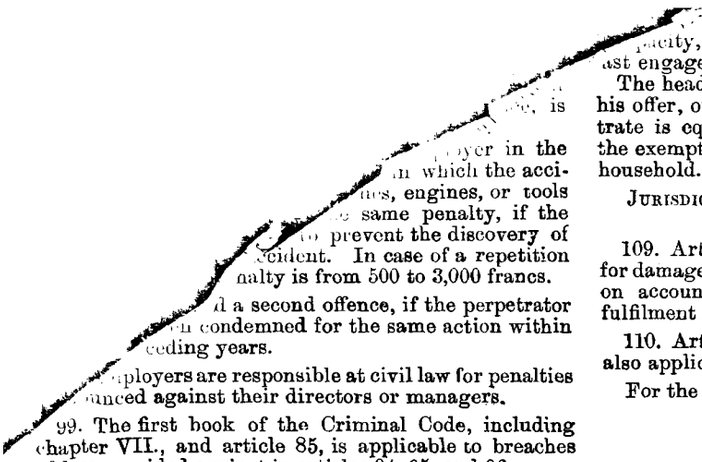
Once in each quarter, the governor shall transmit the documents in question, with a recapitulary statement, to the Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Public Works.

94. Employers who infringe any of the provisions of articles 51, 58, 89, 90, and 92 are liable to a fine of from 26 to 100 francs.

In the case of a second offence, the minimum penalty is fixed at 100 francs, and may be raised to 500 francs.

95. Employers who do not conform to the requirements of the present law, so far as concerns the compulsory assurance of their workmen, are liable to a penalty of from 50 to 500 francs.

For a second offence, the penalty is from 200 to 2,000 francs.



…ployer in the …n which the acci… …s, engines, or tools … same penalty, if the … prevent the discovery of … accident. In case of a repetition … nalty is from 500 to 3,000 francs.

… a second offence, if the perpetrator … condemned for the same action within … ceding years.

… employers are responsible at civil law for penalties … anced against their directors or managers.

99. The first book of the Criminal Code, including chapter VII., and article 85, is applicable to breaches of law provided against in articles 94, 95, and 96.

Chapter III.—Special Regulations for Domestic Servants.

Section I. Concerning the Compensation due to Domestic Servants from Heads of Households, in execution of article 14.

100. Domestic servants who have the right of claiming, under the head of damages, the temporary compensation, and life annuities, accorded to workmen, under the same circumstances, by articles 37, 38, and 39, may require the application of article 14, on account of bodily injuries incurred during the fulfilment of their service.

101. Articles 40 and 41 equally apply to the family of a domestic servant whose death has been caused by accident.

102. Nevertheless, the compensation, or life annuities, granted to the injured person, for absolute incapacity to work, shall not exceed the rate of 2 francs 60 centimes a day. Life annuities on account of permanent partial incapacity to work, as well as the total amount of the annuities allowed to the family, shall not exceed the sum of 2 francs a day.

103. Medical and funeral expenses shall be defrayed by the head of the household, in accordance with article 43.

104. Temporary compensation, and life annuities, paid in accordance with articles 100 and 101, are calculated upon the average daily wage, and the yearly earnings, of the injured person.

By the average daily wage, is meant that which the injured person has earned, during the year preceding the accident, in the house or on the farm where such accident took place.

The annual earnings correspond to three hundred and sixty-five times the average daily wage.

105. The domestic servant who has been in the service of his employer for less than one year, is reckoned to have gained during the whole year the average of the daily wages obtained during the time of the duration of the engagement.

106. The average daily wage includes the allowances mentioned in article 45.

Should the domestic servant be lodged and boarded in the house or farm, these advantages must be valued by the judge, in the manner defined by the article cited above.

Such allowances shall only be taken into consideration, in order to determine the amount of compensation or life annuities due to the injured person himself.

107. Articles 48, 49, and 50 are applicable to the compensation and life annuities claimed by domestic servants and their families.

108. The head of the household is freed from all obligation to pay compensation on account of temporary incapacity to work, which also would include medical expenses, should he undertake at his own cost the care and support of the servant until his recovery.

The head of a household may be exempted by the magistrate from the payment of life annuities due in case of permanent incapacity to work, should he offer to undertake, under the same conditions, the care and support of a servant permanently disabled, or to retain in his employment a servant suffering from partial …city, at the wages stipulated at the time of the last engagement.

The head of a household may at any time withdraw his offer, on the request of the servant. The magistrate is equally empowered at any time to withdraw the exemption which he has granted to the head of the household.

Jurisdiction, Procedure, Preventive Measures, Penalties (*sanctions pénales*). Section II.

109. Articles 70, and 71 to 88, are applicable to claims for damages or compensation made by domestic servants, on account of bodily injuries sustained during the fulfilment of their service.

110. Articles 93, 96, sections 2 and 3, 97, and 99, are also applicable.

For the Commission—

A. Van Berchem, President,
Ad. Prins, Secretary.

APPENDIX C.

Books and Pamphlets bearing on Labour Questions in Belgium.

a. Publications issued by the Labour Commission.

Commission du Travail (Labour Commission), 1886–1887.

I. Réponses. (Answers to Questions.)
II. Procès-verbeaux. (Digest of Evidence.)
III. Rapports. (Reports.)
IV. Comptes-rendus des séances plénières. (Reports of the Commission sitting as a whole).
V. Enquête agricole. (Enquiry into conditions of agricultural labour.) [Digest of Evidence.]

b. Recent Laws, Bills and Decrees.

Loi portant répression des atteintes à la liberté du travail. 30 Mai 1892. (Law restricting Attacks on the Freedom of Labour. May 30th, 1892.)

Loi organique des conseils de prud'hommes. 31 Juillet 1889. (Law instituting the Councils of Prud'hommes. July 31st, 1889.)

Exécution de la loi du 31 Juillet 1889 organique des conseils de prud'hommes. Circulaire aux gouverneurs. 7 Oct. 1889. (Circular to the Provincial Governors respecting the Execution of the above Law. Oct. 7th, 1889.)

Réglementation du payement des salaries aux ouvriers. Loi du 16 Août 1887. (Law regulating the Payment of Workmen's Wages. August 16th, 1887.)

Do. Arrêté du 5 Dec. 1887. (Do. Decree of December 5th, 1887.)

Le travail des femmes, des adolescents, et des enfants dans les établissements industriels. Loi du 13 Dec. 1889. (Law regulating the Labour of Women, Young Persons, and Children in Industrial Establishments. Dec. 13th, 1889.)

Do. Arrêté du 24 Dec. 1890. (Do. Decree of Dec. 24th, 1890.)

Do. Arrêtés du 26 Dec. 1892. (Do. Decrees of Dec. 26th, 1892.)

Do. Arrêté du 31 Dec. 1892. (Do. Decree of Dec. 31st, 1892.)

Do. Arrêtés du 15 Mars, 1893. (Do. Decrees of March 15th, 1893.)

Louage de services des ouvriers et des domestiques. Exposé. Projet de loi. 13 Août, 1891. (Bill on the Engagement of Workpeople and Domestic Servants. Aug. 13th, 1891.)

Assurances contre les accidents du travail. Développements. Proposition de loi. 15 Juillet 1890. (Bill on Insurance against Accidents incurred during the Performance of Work. July 15th, 1890.)

Révision de la loi du 3 Avril 1851 sur les sociétés de secours mutuels. Exposé. Projet de loi. 16 Mai 1890. (Bill on Revision of the Law of April 3rd, 1891, respecting Mutual Aid Societies. May 16th, 1890.)

Conseils de l'industrie et du travail. Arrêté du 15 Août, 1889. (Councils of Industry and Labour. Decree of Aug. 15th, 1889.)

Conseil supérieur du travail. Arrêtés du 7 Avril, 1892. (Higher Council of Labour. Decrees of April 7th, 1892.)

Loi du 5 Mai 1888 relative à l'inspection des établissements dangereux, insalubres et incommodes, et à la surveillance des machines et chaudières à vapeur. (Law of May 5th, 1888, regulating the

Inspection of Dangerous, Unhealthy, and In[illegible] venient Establishments, and the Supervision of Machinery and Steam Boilers.)

Loi relative aux habitations ouvrières, et à l'institution de comités de patronage. 9 Août 1889. (Law respecting Workmen's Dwellings, and the Establishment of Committees of Inspection. Aug. 9th, 1889.)

Personnification civile accordée aux unions professionnelles. Projet de loi. 28 Jan. 1893. (Bill on the State Recognition of Trade Associations. Jan. 28th, 1893.)

Écoles ménagères. Circulaire. Rapport. Arrêtés, 26 Juin 1889, 6 Juillet 1890. (Housekeeping Schools. Circular. Report. Decrees. June 26th, 1889, July 6th, 1890.)

c. Official publications.

1. *Publications of the Belgian Government.*

Annuaire statistique de la Belgique, 1892. (Belgian Statistical Year Book, 1892.)

Machines à vapeur. Réglement de police et instructions. 1884. (Regulations and Instructions respecting Steam-engines. 1884.)

Mines. Règlement général de police. 1884. (General Regulations respecting Mines. 1884.)

Statistique des mines, minières, carrières, usines métallurgiques et appareils à vapeur pour l'année 1889. (Statistics of Mines, Quarries, Metal Works, and Steam-engines for the year 1889.) E. Harzé. 1890.

Do. 1890. E. Harzé. 1891.

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Annales des travaux publics de Belgique. (Annual Returns of the Public Works in Belgium.) I., Part II., 1892.

Salaires et budgets ouvriers au mois d'avril 1891. (Workmen's Wages and Budgets in the Month of April, 1891. 1892.)

Chambre des Représentants. Avant-projet d'une loi du contrat de louage des ouvriers et des domestiques. Procès-verbeaux. Projet. Rapport. 17 Nov. 1891. (Chamber of Representatives. Bill on the Engagement of Workpeople and Domestic Servants. Report of Debate. Nov. 17th, 1891.)

Chambre des Représentants. Travail dans les mines et création d'une direction générale du travail. Rapport. 30 Juillet 1891. (Do. Report on the Debate concerning Labour in Mines and the Institution of a Labour Department. July 30th, 1891.) G. Sabatier.

Conseil supérieur du travail. Première session. (Report of the First Session of the Higher Council of Labour.) 1892.

Caisses de prévoyance en faveur des ouvriers mineurs. Examen des comptes de l'année 1890. (Miners' Provident Societies. Accounts for the year 1890.) 1892.

2. *Publications of the provincial authorities.*

Province of Hainault.

Rapport du directeur de la 1re division des mines. Année 1890. (Report of the Director of the First Mining District for the year 1890.) 1891.

Do. Année 1891. (Do. for the year 1891.) 1892.

Caisse de prévoyance à Mons en faveur des ouvriers mineurs. Rapport annuel de 1890. (Annual Report for 1890 of the Miners' Provident Society at Mons.) 1891.

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Province of Namur.

Situation de l'industrie minérale de Namur. Année 1890. (Condition of the Mineral Industry of Namur in the year 1890).

Do. 1891.

Province of Liége.

Situation de l'industrie minérale et métallurgique de Liége. Année 1890. (Condition of the Mineral and Metal Industry of Liége in the year 1890).

Do. 1891.

3. *Publications of the municipal authorities.*

Brussels.

Bourse du travail. Rapport 1890–91. (Report on the Labour Exchange, 1890–91.)

Do. 1891–92.

Les ouvriers sans travail. (The Unemployed.) M. Buls. 1893.

Antwerp.

Comité [illegible]

Rapport [illegible] mittee for [illegible] Dwellings). Co[illegible] referring to the "[illegible]

Liége.

Bourse du travail. Expos[illegible] Labour Exchange.) 1892.

4. *Publications of the French Governme[illegible]*

De la conciliation et de l'arbitrage e[illegible] à l'Etranger. (Conciliation and Arbit[illegible] France and Other Countries). 1893.

Exposition universelle internationale de 188[illegible] Paris. Rapports. Groupe de l'économie sociale. Ire partie. (Report on the Universal International Exhibition of Paris in 1889. Section of Social Economy. Part I.) 1891.

Do. 2me partie. (Do. Part II.) 1892.

5. *Foreign Office Miscellaneous Series.*

No. 214. Report on the Present State of the Labour Question in Belgium. M. Gosselin. 1891.

No. 198. Report on the Belgian Councils of Prud'-hommes and Councils of Industry and Labour. M. Gosselin. 1891.

No. 233. Report on the Creation and Constitution of a Higher Council of Labour. M. Gosselin. 1892.

No. 144. Report on Belgian Mining Industry during the year 1887. M. Gosselin. 1889.

No. 188. Report on the Coal Industry of Liége in 1889. Vice-Consul Menzies. 1890.

No. 259. Report on the forthcoming Ghent Agricultural Exhibition. Vice-Consul Hallett. 1892.

No. 249. Report on the Brussels Labour Exchange. C. Greene. 1892.

No. 110. Report on recent Belgian Legislation affecting Economic and Labour Questions. M. Gosselin. 1888.

d. Private Publications and Reports.

1. *Books and Pamphlets.*

Les conditions du travail en Belgique. (The Conditions of Labour in Belgium.) M. A. Bourée. 1890.

Les socialisme contemporain. (Contemporary Socialism.) E. de Laveleye. 1891.

Les services publics. (The Public Service.) C. de Paepe.

Le rachat des charbonnages. (The Redemption of Coal Mines.) G. Degreef. 1886.

Der Emancipationskamp des vierten Standes. (The Struggle of the Working Classes for Independence.) R. Meyer. 1882. 2 vols.

Enquête sur les associations professionnelles d'artisans et ouvriers en Belgique. (Enquiry into the Trade Associations of Artisans and Workmen in Belgium.) E. Vandervelde. 1891 2 vols.

Historique de l'association libre des compositeurs et imprimeurs typographes de Bruxelles. (Historical Account of the Free Association of Typographic Compositors and Printers in Brussels.) E. Hubert. 1892.

Parti ouvrier belge. Compte rendu du 5me congrès annuel. (Report of the Fifth Annual Congress of the Belgian Labour Party.) 1889.

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Les institutions ouvrières de Mariemont et de Bascoup. (The Workmen's Institutions at Mariemont and Bascoup.) F. Bollaert. 1884.

L'esprit des institutions ouvrières de Mariemont. (The Spirit of the Workmen's Institutions at Mariemont.) J. Weiler. 1888.

Note sur les chambres d'explications de Mariemont et de Bascoup. (Notes on the Chambers of Explanations at Mariemont and Bascoup.) A. Demeure. 1887.

Conseil de conciliation et d' arbitrage des charbonnages de Mariemont. Règlement. (Rules of the Council of Conciliation and Arbitration at the Mariemont Colliery.) 1888.

Do. Rapports sur les travaux des exercices 1888, 1889, 1890, 1891. (Do. Reports for the years 1888–91.) 1892.

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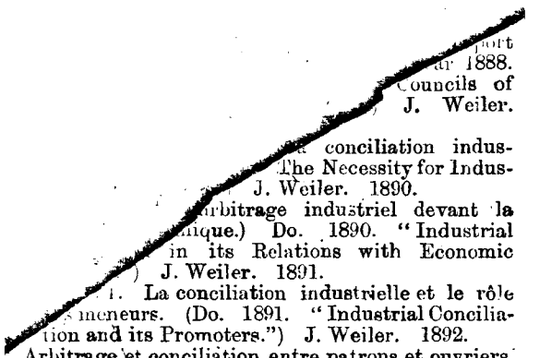

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